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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

Fifty-Sixth Annual Convention

OF THE

Ontario Educational Association

HELD IN

TORONTO

On the 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th April, 1917.



TORONTO :
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1917



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PROCEEDINGS
OF
The Fifty-Sixth Annual Convention
OF THE
ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 10th, 1917.

The Association met in Convocation Hall, University of Toronto.

President Hutton took the chair at 8 o'clock p.m.

Ven. Archdeacon Cody, D.D., LL.D., conducted the devotional exercises by reading from the 19th Psalm, and leading in prayer.

Moved by Mr. John Dearness, seconded by Mr. H. I. Strang, that as the Minutes for 1916 have been printed and distributed among the members, they be considered as read, and are hereby confirmed. Carried.

Addresses of welcome were given by

(1) R. A. Falconer, LL.D., President of the University of Toronto. (See page 77.)

(2) Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., Minister of Education for Ontario. (See page 79.)

President Hutton addressed the Association on "The Action and Reaction of Education on the War." (See page 82.)

R. A. Gray, B.A., Chairman of the Superannuation Committee, reported as follows:

REPORT OF THE SUPERANNUATION COMMITTEE.

Since the last meeting of the Ontario Educational Association in 1916 your Committee has continued its efforts on behalf of the

Superannuation Bill with the same vigor and energy as in former years, and we are happy to be able to report that our efforts have been crowned with complete success. We have every confidence that the "Act respecting the Superannuation of Certain Teachers and Inspectors," which has recently been passed by the Legislature in the session of 1917, will prove one of the best on the statute books of any country, and that a new era of educational efficiency will dawn in the Province of Ontario. At first we should guard against the mistake of cherishing too great expectations from the measure, for it will take time before its beneficial effects will be altogether apparent.

Our thanks are due to Sir William Hearst and to his Cabinet for their decision to bring in the Bill as a Government measure; to the Honourable Dr. Pyne, Minister of Education, especially, who has so satisfactorily redeemed the pledge given to this Association three years ago during the administration of the late Prime Minister, Sir James Whitney; to the Honourable G. Howard Ferguson, Acting Minister of Education during the absence of Dr. Pyne on overseas service, for his sympathetic consideration of your Committee on several occasions on which he was interviewed; to Mr. N. W. Rowell, Leader of the Opposition, for his hearty support and assistance of the Bill; and to the members of the Legislature generally, who recognized the benefits such a measure will have in advancing the cause of education in the country; to the Deputy Minister of Education, Dr. A. H. U. Colquhoun, for his unceasing efforts and encouragements and for the spirit of optimism and courtesy uniformly displayed even when our fortunes seemed to be at a very low ebb, and who gave unsparingly of his time and thought to your Committee; and to Dr. Seath, Superintendent of Education, for his many valuable suggestions, chiefly along the line of perfecting the administration of the Act, while the Bill was going through the House.

We are also very greatly indebted to the Actuary, Professor M. A. MacKenzie, and to the draftsman of the Bill, Mr. Allan Dymond, for the very complete, carefully-drawn, and lucid statement of its provisions.

Our thanks are also due to the teachers and inspectors, to many of the trustees and to the newspapers, all of whom were so strong and encouraging a force behind your Committee during the past

years; to the London Teachers' Association particularly, who took the initiative, and who rendered such valuable assistance to your Committee in aiding in bringing so large and representative a body of teachers and trustees from every part of the Province in that memorable delegation that assembled at the Parliament Buildings on March 9th. While the decision of the Government to carry the Bill had been reached before the delegation met, the magnificent demonstration showed unmistakably the genuineness of the desire of the substantial and permanent body of teachers in the Province for a superannuation scheme.

To recount all the work done by your Committee during the past year would weary you, and might be considered, in view of the happy culmination of our labours, somewhat out of place at this time. It will suffice to say that almost as great an effort was put forth as was made during the previous year when the merits of the Bill were set forth at the Teachers' Institutes throughout the Province.

Since first this Superannuation Committee was appointed in 1904—omitting any mention of committees previously appointed—and which has been continued from year to year ever since, many changes have been made in the personnel of the Committee, and very few of the original members served throughout all these years. It is with regret that we note that one of our members, Inspector Neil Campbell, suddenly passed away early in April at Durham. Those who were present at the deputation that met the Prime Minister, with nearly all the Cabinet, on Saturday, February 10th, will remember the thoughtful and effective speech he made on that occasion in support of superannuation.

As your Committee has completed the work for which it was appointed, we would recommend that:

- (1) The present Committee be discharged;
- (2) A new Committee be appointed, fewer in number than the last one;
- (3) The two persons elected to the Commission under the Act be members of the New Committee.

The objects of having such a Committee are, to perfect the Act, to make suitable suggestions to the Commission if it is thought

desirable to do so, and to provide a body which could be consulted by your representatives on the Commission.

In selecting the representatives, great care should be exercised. For some years until the operation of the Act becomes a matter of routine, and until suitable regulations governing its operation have been framed, and precedents created from time to time, much labor and skill will be required. You must then seek out, whether from among those who have served on the Superannuation Committee or not, persons in whose judgment you have confidence, with knowledge of the profession and with sympathy, who will also have due regard for the conservation and future stability of the fund.

As the Act is now in force, all teachers and trustees should make themselves familiar with its main provisions without delay. For this purpose a number of copies of the Act are ready for distribution during the present meeting of the Association.

Respectfully submitted,

R. A. GRAY,
Chairman.

The report was adopted on motion by Mr. Gray, seconded by Mr. W. Scott.

Moved by Mr. J. H. Putman, seconded by Mr. E. S. Hogarth, that we, the teachers and inspectors of Ontario, are under deep and lasting obligation to Principal R. A. Gray for his untiring efforts in promoting, and his technical advice in shaping the Superannuation Bill, and that as a token of our appreciation, we appropriate from the funds of the Ontario Educational Association the sum of two hundred and fifty dollars, to be used in purchasing for Mr. Gray a suitable memento or souvenir, as a tangible mark of our esteem; and that Principal Scott of the Normal School, Principal Hagarty of Harbord Street College Institute and Inspector Ward of Toronto be a Committee to purchase the souvenir and on our behalf present it to Mr. Gray. Carried.

The nomination of officers resulted in the following officers being elected:

President William Pakenham, B.A., D. Paed.

Secretary Robert Willson Doan, 216 Carlton Street, Toronto.

Treasurer Henry Ward, B.A., Toronto.

Nominations for the position of Commissioner on Superannuation were received as follows: Messrs. R. A. Gray, C. G. Fraser, T. A. Reid.

It was decided to allow additional nominations to be made on Wednesday evening.

Moved by Mr. H. Ward, seconded by Mr. J. H. Laughton, that this Association appoint a Standing Committee on Legislation and Discipline, consisting of the President, the Secretary and the Treasurer of the Ontario Educational Association and one representative elected annually from each of the four departments, viz., the Elementary, the College and Secondary School, the Supervising and Training, and the Trustees'; that in a general way the duties of this Committee be defined as follows:

(1) To present to the Minister of Education or to the Government of Ontario any recommendations which from time to time may be made by the Ontario Educational Association regarding changes in the curriculum of studies, superannuation, text-books, qualification and training of teachers, and examinations.

(2) To consider any complaint made in writing by any teacher in Ontario regarding alleged unfair treatment of the teacher by trustees or other school officials.

(3) To consider any complaint made by trustees regarding breach of contract or unprofessional conduct on the part of teacher or inspector.

(4) That this Committee shall meet whenever in the opinion of its chairman a meeting is necessary, and that any funds necessary for these meetings or for otherwise carrying on its work shall be supplied by this Association.

Ordered to stand as a notice of motion.

The President declared the meeting adjourned.

After the adjournment, a reception was held by President Falconer, on behalf of the University, which was largely attended.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH.

The Association met in Convocation Hall at 8 o'clock p.m., President Hutton in the chair.

Rev. H. P. Pluintre, M.A., conducted the devotional exercises by reading the Third chapter of Proverbs and leading in prayer.

O. D. Skelton, M.A., addressed the Association on "Fifty Years of Confederation." (See page 94.)

N. W. Rowell, M.P.P., addressed the Association on "The Dominions and the War." (See page 106.)

The following communications were received:

(1) From Sir Philip Hutchins, Chairman of Council, League of the Empire, as follows:

17TH FEBRUARY, 1917.

DEAR SIR,—Although it is impossible to hold any important gathering of the Imperial Union of Teachers this year owing to war conditions, yet possibly some of your members may be in England, and thus through them touch may yet be maintained between British teachers and those from Overseas.

The Imperial Union of Teachers will meet as usual in the middle of July, and I am to ask you if you will kindly let any of your members who may be here know of the meeting. Further, we should be glad to have a list of any such members, so that we may communicate with them in regard to the proceedings, and send them papers connected therewith.

The events of the last three years have brought our Empire into intimate relationship with many foreign countries, and great additional interest was gained in last year's meetings through including in the Conference representatives from all those countries now in alliance with us (*i.e.*, France, Russia, Belgium, Italy, Serbia), inasmuch as the higher ideals in education were discussed from many different points of view. In addition to the representatives from foreign countries, it is proposed this year to invite also some teachers from the United States of America.

At the meeting next July papers will be read concerning the higher ideals in education of both Eastern and Western countries (speaking from the geographical position of Great Britain), and consideration will be given as to the ways in which these ideals may best be made available for building up the spiritual equipment for life which each child should possess. In so large a subject it is probable that this Conference could take but a preliminary survey of the ground to be covered. From the Eastern standpoint, we propose to have papers dealing with Russian and with Indian ideals;

from the Western standpoint, with those of the Anglo-Saxon and the Latin races.

We quite understand that at the present time travelling is all but impossible, but yet the very conditions of the war may enable certain members to attend who might not otherwise be in this country. Even if it should be impossible to carry out any important meeting this year, it is yet hoped that the way may be opened for a fuller consideration of the subject when peace conditions again prevail.

Hoping to have your kind interest in regard to this matter,

I am,

Yours faithfully,

PHILIP HUTCHINS,

Chairman of the Council.

R. W. DOAN, ESQ.,

General Secretary,

Ontario Educational Association,

The above letter was referred by the Board of Directors to the League of the Empire Section. Approved.

(2) From Mrs. Frederick Monro, Toronto, with reference to the memorial statue to Miss Edith Cavell.

Moved by J. L. Hughes, LL.D., seconded by John Dearness, M.A., that this Association heartily approves of the proposal that children in the schools of Ontario be urged to unite in raising a fund for the erection of a monument to the memory of Miss Edith Cavell. Carried.

(3) From Mr. Wm. Greenwood Brown, in reference to Physical and Military Training in Schools.

On motion, this letter was taken as read.

(4) From Mr. W. A. Parks, Secretary, Royal Ontario Museum of Palaeontology, extending a cordial invitation to the members of the Ontario Educational Association to visit the Museum during the meeting of the Association.

Mr. Dearness read the report of the Auditors. (See page 76.)

Moved by Mr. Dearness, seconded by Mr. Nethercott, that the report of the Auditors be adopted. Carried.

Pursuant to notice given on Tuesday, Mr. Henry Ward, seconded by Mr. Laughton, moved the resolution respecting the appointment of a Standing Committee on Legislation and Discipline. (See page 11.)

The motion was carried.

The election of two members of the Association to serve on the Superannuation Committee was announced as the next order of business. An additional nominee was Mr. J. H. Putman.

It was agreed that the voting be by ballot, and that the two candidates securing the highest number of votes be declared elected.

The result of the voting was that Messrs. R. A. Gray of Toronto and J. H. Putman of Ottawa were declared elected.

Moved by Mr. Wm. Scott, seconded by Mr. D. A. Maxwell, that the thanks of the Association be and are hereby tendered to the Hon. R. A. Pyne, R. A. Falconer, LL.D., O. D. Skelton, M.A., N. W. Rowell, M.P.P., for the able and inspiring addresses which they have delivered during this Convention, and to President Hutton for the courteous and efficient manner in which he has conducted the business of the Convention.

Dr. Pakenham, the President-elect, put the motion and declared it carried.

Moved by the Rev. James Buchanan, seconded by Mr. James L. Hughes, that the thanks of the Association be tendered to the Legislature, the Hon. W. R. Hearst, Mr. N. W. Rowell and Hon. Dr. Pyne for the very handsome manner in which they have placed upon the statute books the Superannuation Bill, which will be a great boon to the teaching profession of the Province. Carried.

Moved by Mr. E. S. Hogarth, seconded by Mr. Henry Ward, that the next meeting of the Ontario Educational Association be held during the Easter holidays, 1918, in Toronto, and that the decision as to the local place of meeting be left to the Board of Directors. Carried.

The meeting closed after the singing of the National Anthem.

After the adjournment the officers of the Canadian Branch of the League of the Empire held a reception, which was largely attended and thoroughly enjoyed by the members of the Association.

R. W. DOAN,
General Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

THURSDAY, APRIL 12TH, 1917.

The meeting of the Elementary Department of the Ontario Educational Association was held in the East Hall of the University Building, on the forenoon of the above date.

The meeting was called to order at 9.35.

On account of the illness of Mr. Hugh A. Beaton, the President, Miss Louise N. Currie, the Vice-President, took the chair.

Secretary Fraser led in devotional exercises.

As the Minutes of last year's meeting had appeared in the Report of the Proceedings, they were taken as read and approved.

The President said a few words, expressing his regret at not being able to preside, and hoped he would be excused.

Secretary Fraser outlined the origin and purpose of the Department; and pointed out some of the lines of usefulness it might take up in unifying the various sections and presenting the resolutions of the combined Public School Teachers before the proper authorities.

The election of officers resulted as follows:—

President Miss Louise N. Currie, Toronto.

Vice-President . . . Mr. G. A. Jordison, Maynooth.

Secretary-Treasurer Chas. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto.

Representative on

Legislation Committee. Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., Hamilton.

The meeting then adjourned.

CHAS. G. FRASER,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 10, 1917.

The Public School Section of the Ontario Educational Association met in the East Hall of the University of Toronto Building on the above date. The first hour was given to registering members and delegates.

At 10.15 a.m. the meeting was called to order, Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., President, in the chair. All united in singing the National Anthem.

Mr. S. Nethercott read a portion of Scripture and led in prayer.

Chas. G. Fraser was elected Minute-Secretary.

The minutes, as printed in last year's Report of the Proceedings, were taken as read, and confirmed.

The following communications of the year were presented:

1. From the following Teachers' Institutes, contributing to the Public School Section of the O.E.A.:—

Brant	\$5.00	Oxford	5.00
Chatham	5.00	Perth	2.00
Essex (S).....	5.00	Peterboro	2.00
Frontenac (S).....	5.00	Renfrew	5.00
Grey (W).....	5.00	St. Catharines.....	2.00
Halton	5.00	Simcoe (E).....	5.00
Hastings (N).....	3.00	Simcoe (N).....	5.00
Huron (W).....	5.00	Stormont	5.00
Kenora	5.00	Timiskaming	5.00
Kingston	5.00	Thunder Bay.....	5.00
Lanark (E).....	5.00	Toronto	70.00
Lincoln	5.00	Waterloo	5.00
Leeds and Grenville (1).....	5.00	Wellington (N).....	5.00
Middlesex (W).....	5.00	Wentworth	5.00
Muskoka	2.00	Windsor	2.00
Nipissing	10.00		
Northumberl'd and Durham (3)	2.10		
			<hr/>
			\$210.10

2. From the County Institutes:—The correspondence for the year and resolutions of provincial importance passed thereat.

3. From the officials of the various departments and sections of the O.E.A., 1916-17.

4. From the Prime Minister, the Minister of Education, and the various Officials of the Department of Education, 1916-17.

5. The correspondence with the officers and members of the Executive of the Public School Section of the O.E.A.

6. From the Windsor, Walkerville and Sandwich Teachers' Institute:—A plain statement of their views regarding cigarette-smoking, the frequent attendance at vulgar and exciting movies, and the conspicuous exhibition of posters of a vulgar and exciting kind, as being physically, mentally and morally injurious.

7. From the Nipissing Teachers' Institute:—Regarding the marking of Entrance papers only by Public School Teachers doing Entrance work.

8. From the Royal Ontario Museum, Toronto:—Inviting the teachers to visit the Museum during the meeting of the O.E.A.

9. From the *Toronto Daily Star*:—Asking for digests of the proceedings of our Section and of papers which are to be presented.

These communications were received and referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

By resolution, the President was asked to appoint a "Committee on Resolutions," and to announce it at the close of the morning session.

Mr. Chas. G. Fraser presented the Report of the Secretary, reviewing the progress of the Public School Section during the twenty years in which he had been an officer of the Association.

(See page 198.)

The report was adopted and the Secretary was requested to have it included in the Report of the Proceedings.

The Report of the Treasurer was then presented, showing:—

RECEIPTS.

Balance on hand from 1915-16.....	\$121 60
Members' Fees	265 75
From Teachers' Institutes.....	210 10
Total	<hr/> \$597 45

EXPENDITURES.

Members' Fees to the General Association.....	\$107 60
Railway Agent—Viseing Certificates	59 00
Secretary Fraser	100 00
Treasurer Spiers	30 00
Minute Secretary	20 00
Postage, Stationery, Supplies, etc.	34 30
Expenses of Superannuation Committee.....	11 50
Printing, Services, etc.	9 00
<hr/>	
Total	\$371 40
Balance on hand.....	226 05

The report was received and referred to the Auditors.

Mr. J. C. Spence, Ottawa, and Mr. Geo. W. Holman, Seaforth, were appointed Auditors.

Mr. S. Nethercott, Woodstock, Vice-President, presented the Report of the Committee on Legislation. (See page 193.) The report was received and adopted.

Mr. G. A. Jordison, Chairman of the "Third Book" Committee, reported progress.

Mr. T. A. Reid, Owen Sound, Chairman of the Superannuation Committee of this Section, gave an account of the movement in favor of superannuation which led up to the passing of the Act this year.

On motion of Mr. John Rogers, Lindsay, and Mr. Wm. Linton, Galt, the report was received and referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas, presented the report of the Committee on Supplementary Reading. (See page 196.) The report was adopted and ordered to be included in the Report of the Proceedings.

Mr. T. A. Reid, Owen Sound, presented the following as a notice of motion, but it was seconded and carried unanimously:

"That this Department of the Ontario Educational Association, representing 12,000 Ontario Public School teachers and 85 per cent. of those engaged in the primary, the secondary and the training schools of the Province, expresses its appreciation of the Hon.

R. A. Pyne, Minister of Education; the Prime Minister, Sir William Hearst, and his other colleagues; Mr. N. W. Rowell, Leader of the Opposition, and the Ontario Legislature, for placing on the Statutes of the Province the Superannuation Act, which we are confident will prove the very keystone in the arch of our educational system, ensuring greater stability to the profession, a more highly qualified body of teachers, with training bettered by experience, a more contented body of workers whose interest in the Superannuation Fund, increasing from year to year, will represent a tangible expression of the Province's appreciation of faithful service in the great work of nation building." Carried.

The Committee on "Report Cards" reported progress.

Secretary Fraser presented the following motion, which was referred to the Committee on Resolutions, with approval: "That the Local Teachers' Institutes sending delegates to the Public School Section of the O.E.A. be charged a membership fee of Five Dollars (\$5.00) for each hundred members it has; and that one session of the Public School Section be devoted to the work directly proposed for, and by, the local Institutes."

The President announced the following as the Committee on Resolutions:—Mr. S. Nethercott, Woodstock, Chairman; Mr. J. W. Snelgrove, London; Mr. W. H. Johnston, Kippen; Mr. A. E. Bryson, Cobalt; Mr. T. A. Reid, Owen Sound; Mr. John Munro, Hamilton; Mr. Wm. Linton, Galt; Miss M. M. Carpenter, Gananoque; Miss C. A. Winters, Pembroke, and Secretary Fraser.

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Joint Meeting.

PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION—TEACHERS' ALLIANCE SECTION.

The meeting was called to order at 2.15 o'clock, President Kerr in the chair.

Mr. E. S. Hogarth, President, Ontario Teachers' Alliance, then read an address on "The Work of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance Under New Conditions."

The suggestions contained in the paper, recommending that the work which had been taken up by the Ontario Teachers' Alliance should be placed in charge of a committee of the General Associa-

tion of the O.E.A., was adopted, and Mr. Hogarth was requested to have his paper included in the report of the proceedings. (See page 126.)

The report of the Treasurer of the O.T.A. was then presented by Miss Margaret Meston, and also the report of the Auditors, which was adopted.

Vice-President Nethercott was then called to the chair, and the President, Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., presented the President's Address on "Leadership."

On motion of Mr. Geo. A. Cole and Mr. John Rogers, supported by Secretary Fraser, the meeting expressed its appreciation of the valuable ideals it contained, and asked that it be printed in the Report. (See page 121.)

Dr. Wallace Seecombe, Chief Dental Officer, Toronto Public Schools, then gave an address on "Good Teeth—Good Health—Good Citizenship."

The appreciation of the meeting was expressed, and the Doctor was asked to have it incorporated in the published Report. (See page 133.)

A resolution was also passed, asking the Department of Education to have it published and circulated throughout the Province.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH, 1917.

The forenoon session of the Public School Section of the O.E.A. took the form of three conferences—Primary Teachers', Rural Teachers' and Public School Principals'.

THE PRIMARY TEACHERS' CONFERENCE.

The Primary Teachers met in conference in Room 11.

The meeting was called to order at 9.30. Miss H. Milne, Palmerston Avenue School, Toronto, in the chair.

Secretary Fraser led in devotional exercises.

Miss Ethel M. Hall, Primary teacher, Weston, read a very valuable paper on "The Kindergarten Primary, Where There Is No Kindergarten," for which she received a warm vote of thanks. (See page 138.)

On account of the absence of Mr. Coombs of the Faculty of Education, Toronto, because of bereavement, the teachers adjourned to the Croft Chapter House to hear the Round Table Discussion on "Kindergarten-Primary Work."

At 11.00 a.m., the Conference resumed work, and Dr. S. B. Sinclair gave a very valuable address on "What is Meant by Learning to Read?"

The meeting then adjourned.

THE RURAL TEACHERS' CONFERENCE.

The Rural School Teachers met in conference in the East Hall, Mr. W. H. Johnston, Kippen, in the chair.

After devotional exercises, Mr. T. C. Birchard, Coboconk, was elected Secretary.

Miss Bessie J. McKenna, B.A., Supervisor of Women's Labor, Ottawa, gave a very instructive address on the "School as a Community Centre." She emphasized the fact that, in the past, the school had not lived up to its possibilities, and made a strong appeal for the support of the teachers in aiding to develop the "Creative Spirit of the 20th Century," adapting the work of the school to the activities and needs of each separate community, and developing the pupils, through work, placing before them the great problems of the nation, and associating art and beauty in every line and form of life.

A vote of thanks was tendered Miss McKenna, and she was requested to have her address incorporated in the Report.

President Creelman, Commissioner of Agriculture for Ontario, and President of the O.A.C., gave an address on "To What Extent Can Vocational Direction Be Given to Our Boys and Girls in Our Rural Schools?" (See page 149.)

The thanks of the meeting were tendered to Dr. Creelman, and a request was made that the address be published in the Report.

Dr. J. B. Dandeno, Inspector of Agricultural Classes in Ontario, gave a very instructive address, showing the very wonderful development that had taken place in the teaching of Agriculture in the schools of the Province since 1903, when it was really introduced; and called attention to the special features and provisions which were emphasized in the present year.

The teachers expressed their appreciation of the address by a vote of thanks, and asked to have it put in form for including in the Report.

The meeting then adjourned.

PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE.

The Principals met in conference in the Ladies' Reading-room.

The meeting was called to order at 9.30, Mr. John Munro, B.A., Hamilton, in the chair.

All joined in singing the National Anthem.

Mr. J. A. Hill, Toronto, was elected Secretary.

Mr. J. A. Hill gave a very careful presentation of the value of the subject of "Oral Composition" in our schools, a subject which has been specialized in Frankland School, Toronto, from the Primary Grade to the highest classes. (See page 156.)

Two pupils, Jack Kannivan and Eric Blaney, each gave an oral composition, the first on "Wireless Telegraphy," which showed a careful research and a fine grasp of the whole subject, while the latter spoke on the "Cecropia Moth," having specimens of the moth in all stages of its development, for illustration. The boys were warmly applauded, and a vote of thanks to them was passed.

Principal Hill submitted a list of topics which one of the members of his staff had kept in her class during the year. It showed the names of the pupils, the topics assigned or selected, and the teacher's remarks as to the success of each pupil.

Mr. W. F. Moore read a spirited defence of "Cadet Work in Our Public Schools," making several suggestions as to how the work could be improved. (See page 159.)

It was moved by Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas, and seconded by Mr. C. A. Moore, Campbellford:—"That a Drill Text-book, suitable for Cadet Corps, be prepared by some competent person." Carried.

It was moved by Mr. W. F. Moore, and seconded by Mr. J. A. Short, Swansea:—"That the age limit for Cadet Corps be changed in the Provincial Act from 14-18 years, so as to read, as in the Dominion Regulations, '12-18 years.'" Carried.

It was moved by Mr. J. A. Hill, Toronto, and seconded by Mr. J. W. Plewes, Chatham:—"That the Cadet Course of work, or its

equivalent in Physical Training, be made compulsory in all schools where the Board thereof believes the conditions to be favorable." Carried.

A very interesting and suggestive "Round Table" discussion on "What Vocational Direction Can Be Given to Public School Pupils?" was introduced by Dr. James L. Hughes, and was followed by many others. Each cited efforts that had been made along this line, and the success that had attended the efforts. It showed how valuable a part of the teacher's work such efforts were, in helping the boys and girls to engage in a life-work for which they were specially adapted, and in which they would be eminently happy and successful.

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Joint Meeting.

PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION—PHYSICAL TRAINING AND SCHOOL HYGIENE SECTION.

The meeting was called to order at 2.15, President Kerr in the chair.

Dr. Jas. M. Barton, Director of Physical Education, University of Toronto, gave a most surprising report on "Medical Inspection of Recruits, with Special Points to Teachers and Parents." (See page 164.)

Dr. F. S. Minns, President, Physical Training and School Hygiene Section, was then called to the chair.

The Double Trio of Perth Avenue School, Toronto, delighted the audience with a selection from "Elijah," and in response to an encore, Miss Doris Fox, one of the Trio, gave a beautiful rendering of Wordsworth's "Daffodils."

Dr. E. A. Peterson, Assistant Superintendent of Schools and Director of Medical Inspection, Cleveland, Ohio, gave a very valuable address on "New Ideals of Physical Training."

The thanks of the Association was tendered the Doctor, and he was asked to have it included in the Report.

President Kerr was then recalled to the chair, and Archdeacon Cody, D.D., LL.D., Rector of St. Paul's Church, Toronto, gave a most inspiring address on "Will There Be a New Canada?"

On motion of Mr. Henry Ward, seconded by Miss E. Abram, a very hearty expression of appreciation was tendered Dr. Cody, and he was requested to allow his address to be included in the Report of the Proceedings. [See page 172.]

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 12TH, 1917.

Meeting was called to order at the close of the meeting of the Elementary Department.

President Kerr in the chair.

The minutes of the meetings for Tuesday and Wednesday were read and approved.

On motion of Mr. T. A. Reid and Mr. Thomas Packer, the thanks of the Section were expressed to the Perth Avenue Trio, and the Secretary was instructed to see that their favor was suitably acknowledged.

The usual allowances were passed.

The expenses of the President, the Secretary, the Chairman of the Superannuation Committee, and of the delegates called to Toronto to meet the Prime Minister, Sir William Hearst, on February 10th, were passed.

A contribution of \$15.00 was made to the Physical Training and School Hygiene Section to pay part of the expenses of Dr. Peterson, as was also a grant of \$25.00 towards the expenses of Dr. John Frown in attending the joint meeting of the Public School Section and the Trustee Department in 1916.

The resolutions of the Principal's Conference regarding: (1) The preparation of a Drill Text-book for Cadet Corps, (2) a change in the Age Limit for Cadet Corps, and (3) the making of Cadet work compulsory, were adopted.

The Report of the Committee on Resolutions was then presented by Mr. Nethercott, chairman, and was adopted. (See page 201.)

The election of officers resulted as follows:—

President Mr. S. Nethercott, Woodstock.
Vice-President . . . Mr. John Munro, B.A., Hamilton.
Past President . . . Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., Hamilton.
Secretary Mr. Chas. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Avenue, Toronto.
Treasurer Mr. R. M. Speirs, Toronto.
Representative . . . Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas.

The following Conference representatives were elected:—

Primary Teachers.

Mrs. Ida Clipperton, Toronto (S.S. No. 27, York).
 Miss Ethel M. Hall, Weston.
 Miss Elizabeth Dunkley, Picton.

Rural School Teachers.

Mr. W. H. Johnston, Kippen.
 Miss Lena M. Field, Stoney Creek.
 Dr. S. B. Sinclair, Toronto.

Public School Principals.

Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas.
 Mr. N. C. Mansell, Sault Ste. Marie.
 Mr. L. J. Colling, Peterborough.
 The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON.

Meeting was called to order at 2.10, President Kerr in the chair.

Dr. C. K. Clarke, Superintendent, Toronto General Hospital, presented a paper on "The Alarming Problem of the Sub-Normal Child." (See page 180.)

Dr. F. J. Conboy, Toronto, President, Ontario Association for the Care of the Feeble-Minded, gave an address outlining the plan which is proposed for the Solution of the Problem of Sub-Normal Children in Toronto, dealing also with the difficulties of the problem of allowing these unfortunate children to attend our schools in the ordinary classes. (See page 184.)

A very spirited discussion followed, in which difficulties were discussed and opinions asked.

It was moved by Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas, and seconded by Mr. R. F. Sanderson, Oakville:—That before people are allowed to marry they should present a certificate from a qualified medical practitioner that they are mentally and physically qualified for the rights of parenthood. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Chas. G. Fraser, and seconded by Mr. J. A. Short, Swansea:—That we express our approval of the plan proposed by Dr. Conboy for the solution of the problem of the feeble-minded in Toronto, and that we also hope that provision will be made for the carrying out of such a plan, not only in Toronto, but in other places throughout the Province. Carried.

The thanks of the Section were tendered to Dr. Clarke and Dr. Conboy, and their addresses were ordered to be included in the Report.

All united in singing the National Anthem, and the meeting then adjourned.

CHAS. G. FRASER,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE KINDERGARTEN SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 10TH, 1917.

The first session opened at 9.45 o'clock with a large number of members present.

After the opening exercises, the minutes being published in the proceedings, were taken as read, and the first item on the programme was taken up, a round-table discussion on kindergarten occupations, led by Miss McIntyre. For an outline of this most interesting introduction of the subject, see page 223. Miss McIntyre had a variety of children's work, mat weaving, etc. Miss Coady spoke on free drawing, with many illustrations of same. Miss Louise N. Currie explained a most interesting exhibition of bead-stringing and

tile work, also artistic forms with seeds. Miss Clara Brenton brought a large collection of free cutting, etc., from her London kindergarten. Miss Daisy Dorrien spoke of her exhibition of art work, which was certainly most suggestive.

At 11 o'clock Prof. J. G. Hume gave a delightful address on "The Imagination." (See page 215.)

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH, 1917.

The first item on the programme was a round-table discussion on "Kindergarten Primary Work," in which the following members, representing kindergarten and primary teachers, took part: Misses Hall, Sparling, Robb, Brenton, Currie and Snider.

Prof. G. M. Wrong then gave one of the most thoughtful and inspiring addresses ever enjoyed by our Section on "Fifty Years of Confederation." (See page 209.)

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

The topic for this meeting was "The Home and School Clubs." The first item was a discussion on the methods of organization and results, participated in by Mrs. Newton McLoven, Mrs. Irwin, Mrs. Payne and Mrs. Carson.

Mrs. Courtice then gave a most interesting paper on "How Can We Prepare Our Children for Citizenship and Guide Them in Choosing Their Special Life Work?" (See page 206.)

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 12TH, 1917.

The first item on the programme was the meeting of the Elementary Department, at which Miss Louise N. Currie was elected President.

This was followed by the election of officers, as follows:—

President.....Miss Clara Brenton, London.

Vice-President.....Miss E. Coady, Toronto.

Director.....Miss H. Heakes, Toronto.

Secretary-Treasurer Miss L. Williams, 96 Jameson Ave., Toronto.

Council.....Misses McIntyre, Currie, Baker, Bryans, Robb, Greenlees, Cameron, Carson, Pettit, Moffatt, McClenaghan.

The Treasurer's Report was then read and accepted, showing a balance of \$104.76. In connection with this, the most satisfactory feature noted was the fact that the standing and membership for this year was the largest in the history of the Section, the Public School Section being the only one with a larger membership.

Mrs. Jean Somers gave a delightful series of games, "Indoor and Out," which were participated in by a number of members, and a cordial expression of thanks was tendered Mrs. Somers.

The meeting then adjourned.

HOME SCIENCE SECTION.

The Home Science Section of the Ontario Educational Association held its fourteenth annual meeting in Room 51, Main Building, University of Toronto, April 11th, 1917.

The meeting was called to order at 9.30 a.m., Miss Elliott, the President, in the chair. The minutes of 1916 were read and adopted, the Treasurer's report read and confirmed.

Miss Palmer and Miss McDonald were elected Auditors; Press Reporter, Miss Calhoun; Nominating Committee, Mrs. Fairlie, Gausby, Misses Laird, Green, Manning; Miss Laird, Convener.

The President then gave her address, which was most encouraging.

Mrs. Fairlie, Y.W.C.A., Hamilton, gave a paper on "Solving the High Cost of Living." (See page 233.)

Miss Pearl Forfar gave a paper on "Sewing in Grade Schools and Other Centres." An interesting discussion followed, led by Miss Pritchard, Owen Sound.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at 2.10 p.m. Miss Laird, Professor of Household Science, University of Toronto, gave a paper on "The Daily Diet." (See page 240.)

Professor Harcourt followed with a paper on "Substitutes for Meat." (See page 239.)

Mr. Leake, who was in the audience, was asked by the President to address the meeting. He did so, asking the teachers present to send in suggestions regarding "Household Science in Rural Schools," and also on any change in the curriculum for the following year.

It was moved by Mrs. Gausby, seconded by Miss Neville, that a vote of thanks and appreciation be made to Miss Laird and Professor Harcourt for the excellent addresses they had delivered. This motion was unanimously carried.

APRIL 12TH—MORNING SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at 9.45.

Miss Ewing, Normal School, Toronto, gave a most interesting paper on "The Relative Importance of the Phases of Household Science, and the Proportion of Time Each Should Receive." This paper is printed in full in the Annual Report. Miss Ewing wished to have a discussion on what she had outlined, and this was led by Miss Snell. (See page 228.)

It was moved by Miss Laird, seconded by Miss Neville, that any change in reference to what Mr. Leake had suggested be put before a committee. Miss Ockley moved that the President select the members for the committee.

A gentleman from Fort William gave an account of making Household Science compulsory in that city.

Miss Eva Natriss gave a brief outline of her work, "Relating Household Science in Rural Schools." Miss Alma Laroyd also outlined the installation of this work in her school.

The following officers were elected:—

President.....Miss Laird.

Vice-President.....Miss Ockley.

Secretary-Treasurer Miss N. A. Ewing.

Councillors.....Misses Elliott, Robertson, Sheffield, Sutherland,
Ryley, H. Wright, Mrs. Gausby.

The meeting then adjourned.

(Miss) M. POWELL,
Secretary.

TECHNICAL AND MANUAL ARTS SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 10TH, 1917.

The Technical and Manual Arts Section of the Ontario Educational Association held its sessions in Room 11.

The first session opened at 2 p.m., with the President, Dr. James L. Hughes, in the chair.

It will be noted that the Section is under a new name, and has a President who was not elected at the 1916 session.

During the winter of 1916-17 a junction was made of the Ontario Association for the Promotion of Technical Education and the Manual Arts Section of the Ontario Educational Association. The new Section thus formed is under the name of the Technical and Manual Arts Section of the Ontario Educational Association, and has as its President Dr. James L. Hughes.

The minutes of the Manual Arts Section of the Ontario Educational Association 1916 session were read and adopted without alteration.

The President, Dr. Hughes, gave a short but pointed address, first explaining the amalgamation above described.

He then proceeded to urge the need, in Canada, of making great effort along the lines of technical education.

Reference was made to the awakening in our neighbor, the United States, to a realization of this need, and the very practical steps being taken there to find the exact need of the case and the large money grants being made to meet this need and put the education of the youth of the country upon a proper basis. The same need exists in Canada, but is not being met in a proportionately definite and aggressive manner.

Here, great stress is being placed upon agriculture. This is commendable, but training along other industrial lines is equally important. The war is working wonders in bringing innovations generally. *Efficiency* is greatly to be desired, but this must be accompanied by a proper development of the spiritual as well as the mental and physical.

The next address was delivered by Professor John Evans, of Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph. The paper was entitled "Art and Construction." The address was unique in that it dealt with

simple phases of art and construction in their basic principles. It was illustrated by drawings, which made the points of the address very clear.

Mr. Evans proceeded to show, among many other things, that education makes the worker more efficient. This results in economy of time, material and energy or effort. The educated man will produce a better piece of work with less effort in less time and with less waste of material than the uneducated man.

Care must be taken to secure suitability in material and design to the service to be rendered, and ornamentation must not be forced, but must be adapted to the thing ornamented, or it becomes superfluous and, therefore, bad.

Beauty is to be found in adaptation to service. A chair is designed to support the weight of a weary man, not to be admired for its curious and ornamented form. "Perfection is obtained by doing common things uncommonly well." To secure the best educational value, we must avoid emphasis of beauty to the neglect of service, and *vice versa*.

An interesting discussion followed the address.

The following were elected a Nominating Committee to meet and make nominations for the ensuing year and report on the re-assembling of the Section to-morrow: Mr. J. S. Mercer, Mr. S. W. Perry, Mr. A. N. Scarrow, Miss Jessie Semple and Mr. E. Faw.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH, 1917.

The second session of the Technical and Manual Arts Section, Ontario Educational Association, was opened by the President.

The Nominating Committee made the following nominations for officers for the year 1917-8, the Section adopting the report.

Hon. President Dr. James L. Hughes, Toronto.

President Mr. John G. Graham, Central Technical School,
Toronto.

Vice-President Mr. J. S. Mercer, Woodstock Collegiate Institute.

Secretary-Treasurer Mr. S. B. Hatch, Humberside Collegiate Institute, Toronto.

Executive Committee The above officers together with Miss Auta Powell, Normal School, Toronto; Mr. S. W. Perry, Faculty of Education, Toronto; Mr. W. M. Flummerfelt, Toronto.

The first address of the afternoon was given by Mr. John G. Graham, Central Technical School, Toronto.

The address was entitled "Art from the Point of View of the Craftsman." (See page 249.)

It was a most striking address—striking in its uniqueness and also in its merciless criticisms of prevailing notions and practices in the field of art.

The address was so full of strong points, which crowded so closely, one upon another, that it was impossible to summarize or select salient ones. An attempt to do this was found to cause the loss of others equally valuable.

A valuable and fairly general discussion of the address followed, and the section unanimously decided to have the address published in full in the Minutes. It was also unanimously decided to publish the address given by Prof. Evans.

The second address of the afternoon was a valuable combination of address on and demonstration of "Color for the Grades," by Mr. J. R. Seavey of Hamilton Normal School.

Mr. Seavey made a number of very interesting demonstrations of how to show the child the color he must learn to know, and which every child naturally loves.

The primary colors, red, yellow and blue, were shown, then combined to produce the secondaries, and, again, the tertiaries.

These combinations were shown in a variety of ways:

1. With colored tissue paper held between the spectator and the light.
2. With beautiful Japanese water-colors, and a very interesting soap-bubble study of color was also made.

Mr. Seavey carefully dealt with the color-charts, and how to make them. He also gave an exhibition of the application of color and its harmonies, as in ladies' costumes and Japanese embroideries.

After a brief discussion and expressions of appreciation of the address, the session was concluded by the hearty singing of the National Anthem.

The Treasurer's Report showed a balance on hand for the coming year of \$29.01.

S. B. HATCH,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE PHYSICAL TRAINING AND SCHOOL HYGIENE SECTION.

The Physical Training and School Hygiene Section of the Ontario Educational Association met in Room 32, Mining Building, University of Toronto, on Wednesday morning, the President, Dr. Frederick S. Minns, in the chair.

The President gave a short paper on "Defectives in the Public Schools." He regretted that on account of sickness he had been unable to finish the survey.

Dr. Peterson, of Cleveland, gave a most interesting and helpful address on "Some Features of School Medical Inspection." He spoke of the great need of working through the parents and children rather than using the "Big Stick" method. Considerable discussion followed the address.

Dr. James L. Hughes then gave an address on "The Strathecona Trust in the Public and High Schools," showing how the fund is distributed to the various schools. He said that a great many schools were not taking advantage of the fund. Discussion followed.

The Nominating Committee brought in their report, which was unanimously adopted. The officers for 1917-18 are as follows:

Honorary President Dr. James L. Hughes.
President Dr. Frederick S. Minns,
Vice-President Mrs. D. C. Wilson.
Secretary-Treasurer A. R. Barton.
Director Dr. Helen MacMurchy.
Councillors Miss Dyke, Miss Burris, Inspector Chapman,
 T. W. Stafford, Mr. Clarke.

A vote of thanks was tendered to the Secretary, Mr. Collings, for his interest in the work during the past year.

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

At a joint meeting with the Public School Section, three excellent papers were given.

Dr. Barton, in his paper on "Medical Inspection of Recruits: Special Points of Interest to Teachers and Parents," told how simple defects in children might be remedied by a little attention being given to them, by both teachers and parents. Discussion.

Dr. Peterson, of Cleveland, gave an interesting address on "Some New Ideals in Physical Training," pointing out the great need for a broader physical training in our schools.

Discussion followed.

The paper given by Archdeacon Cody on "Will There Be a New Canada?" was a most patriotic and inspiring one, and greatly appreciated by all who heard him.

The meeting then adjourned after singing the National Anthem.

S. W. COLLINGS,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE SPELLING REFORM SECTION.

Room No. 22 was kept open during the Convention days for the distribution of literature, signing petitions and answering inquiries.

The meeting was held in Room No. 37, on Wednesday afternoon, 11th of April. President Dr. L. E. Horning occupied the chair.

The minutes of the previous meeting as printed in the Convention Proceedings were taken as read and approved.

The Secretary read the text of a memorial address to the Secretary of State for India, setting forth the facts that the Indian Empire has a greater number of alphabets than all the other languages of the world, and that upwards of 10,000 characters are used to represent the 64 sounds contained in all the vernaculars, therefore a

commission should be appointed to adopt an alfabet for the languages of India based upon the Roman alfabet for at least optional use in the scools.

On motion, the endorsement of the memorial was approved by the Section.

The following offisers wer elected:

President.....Professor D. R. Keys, M.A., University of Toronto.

Secretary-Treasurer John Dearness, M.A., London, Ont.

Committee.....Professor J. Gibson Hume, M.A., Ph.D.; H. I. Strang, B.A., LL.D.; Professor L. E. Horning, M.A., Ph.D.; A. Pearson, B.A.; Professor E. F. Burton, B.A.; B. A. Cooper, B.A.

A very useful address was delievrd by Dr. L. E. Horning on "Practicable Means of Progress for Spelling Reformers."

Mr. John Dearness reported what the Organized Societies for the Improvement of Spelling had accomplisht in the past year.

"The Lost Values of the Alfabet, and How to Recover Them," was the subject of a paper by Mrs. Dora F. Kerr. (See page 264.)

Dr. Alexander Hamilton, M.A., gave his reasons for holding that "English is the Worst-speld Language in the World," showing how it compared disadvantageously with Spanish, Italian, German, French and even Portuguese.

Principal A. Pearson reviewed some of the inconsistencies in the present spelling-book, and made an estimate of the almost incredible financial waste incurd by the prevalent devotion to the present irrational spelling.

Mr. Wm. H. Orr gave an interesting account of the earliest efforts made in this Province to improve English spelling. He is now the sole survivor of the men who wer present at the Quebec session when Confederation was determined. From the offis of the *Oshawa Vindicator*, of which he was publisher and editor, he had from the years 1858 to 1862 sent out a monthly—the *Phonetic Pioneer*—which was the pioneer publication in this country devoted to spelling reform. In a fyle of this journal containing the report of a convention held in Toronto in March, 1859, at which was formd the British American Phonetic Society, most of whose members were

school teachers or press reporters using Pitman's shorthand, Mr. Orr advocated calling a convention of newspaper publishers to consider the adoption of an instalment of simpler spelling. The *Toronto World* deserved credit for the measure of reform it had adopted.

On motion of Mr. A. Pearson, a Committee, consisting of President Keys and Professors Hume and Horning, was appointed to interview the publishers of the *School* and the metropolitan dailies and to impress upon them the desirability and importance of making a start in the matter of simplifying and improving the present illogical fashion of spelling.

JOHN DEARNESS.
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE SECTION.

The annual meeting of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance was held in Toronto University on Tuesday, April 10th, at 2 p.m. The President, Mr. E. S. Hogarth, B.A., occupied the chair.

The minutes of annual meeting of 1916 were taken as read.

The financial statement was read and adopted, the seconder being Mr. W. F. Moore of Dundas.

The President spoke on the work of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance under new conditions. He told of its origin, aims and achievements, and pointed out that after prolonged and careful consideration on the part of a joint committee, composed of members of the Ontario Educational Association and Ontario Teachers' Alliance, it was agreed that the work that had been done by the Alliance could be carried on effectively by a committee of the Ontario Educational Association, which shall be known as "The Legislative and Discipline Committee." At a general meeting of the Ontario Education Association a recommendation to this effect was presented and carried without opposition. (See page 126.)

So the Ontario Teachers' Alliance has been absorbed by the Ontario Educational Association, and all its responsibilities assumed by that body.

Mr. Hogarth has been retained as a member of the newly formed committee.

MARGARET MASTON,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE LEAGUE OF THE EMPIRE SECTION.

The League of the Empire Section met in Room 59, University of Toronto, April 11th.

At 11 a.m. there was a joint meeting with the English and History Section, when Ven. Archdeacon Cody gave a masterly address on "Nationality and the War."

At 3 p.m. the meeting was called to order with Principal Hutton in the chair. Mrs. Van Koughnet read a very interesting paper from our Secretary for England, Mrs. Ord-Marshall, dealing with the various activities of the League.

Mrs. Ord-Marshall says: "The main activities of the League have been directed to war work and soldiers' comforts, and hospital supplies have been collected and distributed where most needed; also thousands of costumes were made and presented to the destitute Serbian children.

Under the auspices of the League, a Kitchener Memorial, in the form of a volume of Shakespeare's works, has been presented to every disabled soldier. This gift applies throughout the Empire, and it is hoped to arrange for the presentation to be made to all Canadians who are eligible.

The League has also presented colors and shields to the Overseas Contingents. The presentation to Canada being made by the Duchess of Argyll.

A scheme for the study of Imperial History has been formulated, and many lectures on Imperial subjects have been given at the League's head office. This very interesting paper closed with warmest greetings from the Central Committee to all members in Canada.

The report of the Secretary for Ontario was read and adopted.

It was moved by Mrs. Van Koughnet, seconded by Mrs. Dewart, "That the present officers be re-elected for the coming year." Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Baker, seconded by Mrs. Van Koughnet, "That the Secretary be instructed to secure names of teachers who might be in a position to attend the meeting of the Imperial Union of Teachers in London in July, and that credentials be given them." Carried.

Mr. W. K. George addressed the meeting on the "News from Home" movement, originated by him, giving us some valuable suggestions.

Miss Thomas of Alexandra School, Lindsay, read an interesting paper on the work of the "Comrades' Correspondence" in that school.

Principal Hutton gave us a paper on "Greece, Roumania and the Great War." (See page 271.)

The following are the officers for the ensuing year:

Hon. President His Excellency the Duke of Devonshire.

President for Canada Principal Hutton, LL.D.

Vice-Presidents for Canada Col. Geo. T. Denison, James L. Hughes, LL.D.

Secretary for Canada Mrs. H. S. Strathy.

Treasurer Mr. H. J. Baker.

Secretary for Ontario Miss F. M. Standish, 643 Euclid Ave., Toronto.

MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 10, 1917.

The College and Secondary School Department met in the West Hall of the Main Building of the University of Toronto at 2.30 p.m., the Chairman, Professor W. J. Alexander, presiding.

The minutes of the two sessions of 1916 were taken as read.

The President, in his opening remarks, referred to the loss the Section had sustained in the death of Former President Loudon, Professor Fraser, Professor Kylie, Principal Steele of Orangeville, Principal Murray of Owen Sound, Principal Redditt of Barrie, and W. R. Sills of Kingston.

President Falconer of Toronto University then gave an address on "The Bearing of the Ideals of the Belligerents on Educa-

tion." He contrasted the ideals of three of the leading belligerents—Germany, France and England—and showed how the German system of militarism was a failure; how the broad and not too intense system in France had made France the beloved of nations, and how the British system, although not always attaining its ideal of righteousness and freedom, made Britain respected by all nations.

Professor Brett of Toronto University then addressed the Section on "Democracy and Education." In the course of his splendid address, he showed how democracy comes into relation with education.

Principal Gavin of Windsor Collegiate then read a well-thought-out paper on "Elements of Merit in Teachers." He advocated a Bureau of Educational Research in connection with the Education Department or the Faculties of Education.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11, 1917.

The second session of the College and Secondary School Department convened at 2.30.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

President Principal Gavin, Windsor C.I.

Vice-President . Dean Coleman, Faculty of Education, Queen University, Kingston.

Secretary W. J. Lougheed, M.A., Jarvis Street C.I., Toronto.

Representative on Legislation Committee . E. S. Hogarth, B.A., Hamilton C.I.

Directors Representatives from the various Sections.

Professor J. F. Macdonald, Queen's University, gave some very strong arguments in favor of Latin in his paper on "Should Latin Be Required for Matriculation?" (See page 282.)

He was followed by Principal Rogers of London C.I., who spoke on the subject, "Matriculation from the High School Point of View." He claimed that the curriculum was overcrowded, and advocated a grouping of the subjects.

In the discussion on the two papers, Professor Milner, Prof. Cameron, Dean Coleman, Mr. Smith, Mr. Hogarth, Dr. Strang and Mr. Burt took part.

It was moved by Dr. Strang, and seconded by Prof. Cameron, and carried, "That the paper of Prof. Macdonald be printed in the Proceedings of the Association."

The Chairman, in introducing Miss M. H. O'Donohue, who gave an interesting paper on "Social Training in Secondary Schools," stated that Miss O'Donohue had the honor of being the first lady to give a paper before the Section.

Miss O'Donohue held that the ideal of training for service was an important one to keep before the pupils, and this ideal was to be attained by giving the students a course in citizenship and social ethics.

The meeting then adjourned.

W. J. LOUGHEED,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

The Section met for business in Room 37 of the Main Building of the University of Toronto, on Tuesday, April 10th, at 10.30 a.m., with the President, Professor J. Home Cameron, in the chair.

The presidential address was based on reflections on the lessons in education to be derived from our experiences in the war. (See page 291.)

Mr. J. Squair read a paper, "In Memory of William Henry Fraser." (See page 343.)

After the reading of the paper, it was resolved, "That this Modern Language Section of the Ontario Educational Association has learned, with the most sincere regret, of the summons by death of one of its oldest and most faithful members, Professor W. H. Fraser.

"Professor Fraser was for many years a member of the Executive, having fulfilled the exacting duties of Secretary for five years, and also occupied the position of President in the earlier days of the Association.

"The Section has lost in Professor Fraser one whose judgment rarely led him astray, and one who had strong convictions, and whose courage was always equal to his convictions. He was a friend of education through a sense of duty, and never spared himself in

any work that could further the work of his department in the University or the interests of the Modern Language Section. He had ideas born of reflection and experience, and was always ready to contribute something of value to our meetings. We shall miss his dry humor and his valuable counsel.

"It is further resolved that this motion be placed in the records of the Section, and that a copy of it be sent to Mrs. Fraser and family, with the expression of our sympathy."

Professor de Champ read a paper in French on the interesting war-book, "Gaspard," which has had a great vogue in France. (See page 309.)

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH.

The Section reassembled at 10 a.m., with the President, Professor Cameron, in the Chair.

Professor J. S. Will read a paper on "Problems in French Ecclesiastical History," in which he discussed the separation of Church and State in France in the year 1905. (See page 335.)

Professor R. K. Hicks read a paper on "Necessary Qualifications for the Language Teacher."

Professor C. B. Sissons read a paper on "La Bonne Entente." (See page 315.)

THURSDAY, APRIL 12TH, 1917.

The Section reassembled at 9.45 a.m., the President, Professor Cameron, being in the chair.

The following officers for the year were elected:

President.....W. H. Williams, M.A., Kitchener.

Vice-President.....Miss A. M. Willson, B.A., Toronto.

Secretary-Treasurer J. Squair, Toronto.

Committee.....R. K. Hicks, M.A., Kingston; H. S. McKellar, B.A., London; Miss E. O. Scott, B.A., Port Hope; Miss R. I. Strang, Arnprior; H. B. Tapscott, M.A., Toronto; Miss M. I. Williams, B.A., Peterborough.

The Auditors reported that the Treasurer's books were correct.

Miss C. C. Grant read a paper on "Summer Schools in French." (See page 302.)

Professor M. A. Buchanan read a paper on "The Claims of Spanish in Our Educational System." (See page 327.)

J. SQUAIR,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.

The meeting was held in the Biological Building on Tuesday, April 10, 1917, the President, T. J. Ivey, in the chair.

The minutes of the session of 1916, and the Treasurer's report were read and confirmed.

In the President's address, Mr. Ivey, as examinee and also as a member of the Science Committee on the curriculum, gave an able summary of the trend of "Upper School Biology" in recent years.

C. G. Fraser, Jr., one of the most practical of our younger science men, dealt with "Some Hints and Helps in Form I Science" in a manner highly appreciated by the members.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

Hon. President Dr. B. A. Bensley.

President Geo. A. Carefoot.

Vice-President P. C. MacLaurin.

Secretary-Treasurer L. H. Graham, 68 Balsam Ave., Toronto.

Committee M. H. Ayers, J. F. Calvert, C. G. Fraser, Jr.,
S. H. Henry, W. A. Jennings and Arthur
Smith.

A hearty vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Arthur Smith for his efficient services as Secretary-Treasurer for the past five years.

It was learned, with regret, that Dr. A. B. Macallum could not be present, and Dr. W. A. Clemens gave a highly instructive address on the "Life History of May Flies," illustrated by views of their long aquatic and brief adult existence.

A large audience from various Sections assembled for the address by W. G. Miller, B.A., Provincial Geologist, on "A Trip, in 1916, to Australia and the South Sea Islands," in which his chief object was to report on the nickel resources of New Caledonia.

A most interesting session was closed by an able address by Dr. J. C. McLennan, F.R.S., on "Recent Advances in Physics," given in the Physics Building to the joint Natural Science and Mathematical Sections.

H. L. GRAHAM,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE CLASSICAL SECTION.

The Classical Section of the Ontario Educational Association met in Room 13, University College, on Wednesday, April 11th, at 10 a.m. The President, Mr. H. W. Bryan, M.A., of Renfrew, took the chair.

After registration of members, the minutes of the last session were read and adopted. Mr. H. Bonis, of Thorold, then gave notice of the following motion:

"That, in the opinion of the Classical Section of the Ontario Educational Association, the time is opportune for reconsidering the whole question of the proper status of Greek in the educational system of the Province and; that this Section pledge itself to further by every legitimate means such changes in the curricula of our Secondary Schools and Universities as will restore to this language among the students of the rising generation in Ontario a degree of favor and attention commensurate with the importance of the literature which it enshrines."

Mr. Bonis' motion was seconded by Mr. P. F. Munro. It was decided that this motion should be dealt with on the following morning. The President then called on Prof. N. W. De Witt for his paper on "English and American Classical Scholarship Compared," a subject which the lecturer dealt with in his usual scholarly style. Then came M. Leon Feraru, speaking on "The Latin Parentage of Rumanian."

Both papers were so highly appreciated by the audience that, on motion, the Secretary was instructed to have them printed in full in the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association. The Section then adjourned for the day. (See page 347.)

On Thursday, the 12th, the Section met again at 10 a.m. The first proceeding was the election of officers for the year 1917-18. The result was as follows:

Hon. President Prof. A. J. Bell, Victoria College.
President Prof. N. W. De Witt, Victoria College.
Vice-President Mr. D. A. Glassey, Harbord Coll. Inst.
Secretary-Treasurer Chas. L. Barnes, Jarvis Coll. Inst.
Councillors Prof. Robertson, Prof. G. Oswald Smith, Mr. P. F. Munro, Mr. J. H. Mills, Mr. A. E. Coombs, Mr. W. J. Salter.

The Section then enjoyed Mr. J. S. Bennett's paper on "Battlefields in France in Caesar's Day and Ours."

At the conclusion, on motion of Prof. Milner, seconded by Dr. Strang, the thanks of the meeting were tendered Mr. Bennett.

On suggestion of the President, seconded by Prof. Hutton, full consideration of Mr. Bouis' motion was deferred until after the next paper. This subject was then taken up, being a discussion on the question, "To What Extent Is the Teaching of Classics, Especially Latin, in the Schools of the Province, in the Hands of Teachers Adequately Prepared?"

The discussion was opened by Mr. Bryan. Prof. E. A. Dale, of Queen's University, followed. Mr. Lyman C. Smith, of Cornwall, concluded the proceedings. The three papers were recognized as valuable contributions, from their respective points of view. The impression left was that the teachers of Latin, as a rule, were doing good work, often excellent work, in spite of most discouraging conditions in many schools.

Professor Hutton, seconded by Mr. Salter, then moved that the new Executive be authorized and urged to take all necessary steps to protect the interests of classics in the secondary schools of the Province, whether by education of the public through the medium of the newspapers, or by any other means offering; the Executive to have power to call in for consultation and assistance any other members of the Association whose services they might wish to use, and to lose no time in taking all necessary steps.

This motion was felt to include that of Mr. Bouis. Prof. Sissons then urged that the necessity of prompt and vigorous action on their part be impressed on the Executive, and was sustained in this by the Section.

The Secretary then moved the appointment of a committee to consult with the Executive of other Sections, with a view to united action towards framing a proposed new curriculum for High Schools; such new curriculum to be considered by all the Sections, and to be ready for presentation and discussion in the College and Secondary Schools Section next Easter.

Professor Hutton approved of this motion, suggesting, however, that the Executive be empowered and instructed to deal with this question also. This was carried.

The Section then adjourned for the year.

CHAS. L. BARNES,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

The 1917 session of the Mathematical and Physical Section of the Ontario Educational Association began on Tuesday, April 10th, with the registration of members at 9.30. At 9.45 the President, W. J. Lougheed, M.A., took the chair. On motion, the minutes of the 1916 Section were taken as read, and the Treasurer's statement, showing a balance on hand of \$118.52, was adopted.

The President then addressed the Section on "The Relation of Mathematics to Life," and, on motion of Messrs. Crawford and Wightman, it was resolved to give this paper a place in the Annual Report of the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association.

The next number of the programme was contributed by Miss H. M. Thompson, of Welland, on the topic, "How I Get Pupils to Do Deductions." Miss Thompson indicated several interesting devices, and explained how she appealed to the fighting instinct to rouse determination to overcome the difficulties. In thanking Miss Thompson, the President noted that this was the first occasion on which a lady had contributed to the programme of this Section.

In the absence of J. F. McDonald, B.A., the next number, "The Normal Entrance Geometry of 1916," was dealt with by G. V. McLean of Napanee, who pointed out that candidates had been confused as to relative importance of parts because of division into sections A, B, C; that part (b) of (2) was lacking in definiteness; that Question 3 did not belong to a Geometry paper, and that no question on Book V. appeared, thus encouraging the neglect of that Book. The one commendable feature of the paper was that it discouraged mere memorization. In conclusion, Mr. McLean advocated deductions as a bonus, and a question on the History of Geometry.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH.

Following further registration of members, the election of officers resulted as follows:

Hon. President J. T. Crawford, B.A.

President R. C. Rose, B.A.

Vice-President G. W. Rudlen, B.A.

Secretary-Treasurer Charles Auld, B.A.

Councillors S. H. Henry, M.A.; R. N. Merritt, B.A.; W. L. Sprung, M.A.; T. Kennedy, M.A.; B. W. Clarke, B.A.

Representative on Board of Directors C. Auld, B.A.

The first paper of this morning, "Magic Properties of Numbers," by A. H. D. Ross, M.A., illustrated by a series of interesting charts, dealt with many "magic" arrangements of the ordinary numbers in triangles, squares and polygons, and with the historic origin of number system, from simple integers to transcendental and other complex number forms. The Section showed its appreciation of Mr. Ross' effort by ordering his paper printed in the Annual Report of the Ontario Educational Association. (See page 362.)

Mr. E. J. Wethey, of Carleton Place, in a paper on "Lower School Arithmetic," pointed out that the difficulties of many pupils arose from imperfect reading, from cumbersome methods of calculation, and from lack of ability to judge of the reasonableness of results.

Mr. E. T. White's discussion of the "Deficiencies of Normal Entrance Students" emphasized the failure of pupils to check over results, weakness in mental arithmetic, and of power to do problems except by aid of type problems.

The concluding number of the year's programme, a lecture on "Recent Advances in Physics," by Dr. J. C. MacLennan, of Toronto University, was highly appreciated by the members of the Mathematical and Physical and Natural Science Sections.

The sessions of 1917 were closed by adjournment.

CHARLES AULD,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION.

The eleventh annual meeting of the English and History Section of the Ontario Educational Association was held in Room 57, University College, University of Toronto, on April 10, 1917, at 9.30 a.m.

The President, Prof. M. W. Wallace, occupied the chair.

On motion, the minutes of the last annual meeting, as printed in the Proceedings, were taken as read.

The Secretary was appointed Press Representative.

Moved by Mr. G. M. Jones, seconded by Mr. J. A. Carlyle, that the Nominating Committee for the officers of next year be the President, Vice-President, Director and Secretary. Carried.

The President then delivered an inspiring address on "The Effect of the War on Our National Life." He referred to the greater ferment of thought that is bound to result, and to the economic upheavals and struggles that will follow. Then he laid stress upon the duty of educators in guiding the future. Teachers must have wider interests and horizons and not be content to be mere employees. They must be interested in education rather than in subjects to be taught, and must be optimistic in developing the spiritual rather than the material.

A very suggestive paper on "Some Aspects of the Teaching of Composition" was read by Miss J. Thomas, M.A. The speaker referred to the folly of impressing a plan on the young writers. Other topics discussed were the intense value of personal interviews with pupils in order to explain their errors, the value of impromptu oral work; the importance of setting familiar topics before the pupils; the lack of time allotted to Composition teachers, with the result that these teachers have intolerable burdens in reading and correcting essays. (See page 378.)

Considerable discussion followed, in which Messrs. Jones, Stubbs, Carlyle, VanEvery, Hanna, and Miss Burriss took part.

The President then referred to the inability of Prof. Kennedy to deliver his address on "Some Ideals of Education," due to his serious illness.

On motion of Mr. Jones, seconded by Prof. Wrong, the report of the History Committee appointed in 1915 was adopted. This report recommended that in the Honour Matriculation examination, History be made a necessary subject for those entering the Honour Courses of Classics or Modern Languages.

Moved by Prof. Wrong, seconded by Mr. Jones, that the same Committee on History be authorized to interview the proper authorities as to the proposals embodied in the report. Carried.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH.

The meeting opened at 10 a.m. with Prof. Wallace in the chair.

The report of the Nominating Committee was then presented and adopted, as follows:

President.....James Keillor, B.A.

Vice-President.....Miss M. N. Burriss, B.A.

Secretary-Treasurer J. F. VanEvery, B.A.

Director.....Prof. W. E. Macpherson.

Councillors.....Mr. J. A. Carlyle, B.A.; Mr. L. J. Pettit, B.A.;
Mr. G. M. Jones, B.A.; Miss M. H.
O'Donoghue, B.A.

Moved by Mr. J. A. Carlyle, seconded by Mr. J. Keillor, that a committee of five be appointed by the Executive to discuss ways and means of teaching English composition, so as to lighten the intolerable burdens now weighing heavily upon the teachers of Composition in our High Schools, and that this committee report one year hence. Carried.

The topic of "The War, Liberty and Democracy" was then the subject of a very thoughtful paper read by Prof. W. S. Milner. In a critical and kindly way the writer referred to the shortcomings of democracy—its fatalism, civic cowardice, class bitterness, parasitism, and autocracy.

Prof. O. D. Skelton then addressed the meeting on "Economic Factors in the History of Canada." He emphasized the need of pointing out to boys and girls of our schools the importance of land

colonization schemes in Canada; of the ways in which railways, canals and good roads have developed our federation, and how other economic factors in our development may be made interesting. (See page 373.)

The balance of the forenoon was devoted to a joint meeting with the League of Empire in Room 12. The President of the League, Principal Hutton, presided, and introduced the next speaker, Archdeacon Cody. He chose as his topic "Nationality and the War," and explained the force of the various Balkan nationalities engaged in the present struggle. (See page 376.)

The meeting then adjourned.

J. F. VAN EVERY,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE COMMERCIAL SECTION.

APRIL 10TH, 1917.

The Commercial Section of the Ontario Educational Association met on the above date in Room 19 of Toronto University. Mr. T. W. Oates, London, President, in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved.

The following committees were then appointed:

Nominating Committee.....Mr. Squire, Miss Cragg,
Mrs. Ford-Firby.
Auditing Committee.....Mr. Birchard, Miss File.
Examination and Revising Committee...Mr. Shurtleff, Mr. Seigley,
Miss Doherty.

The President's address was the next item on the programme, and was much enjoyed. Mr. Oates pointed out the importance of commercial education in our Province at present, and how necessary it is that the course should be a thorough one. (See page 385.)

In the absence of Mr. Clark, his paper, "How I Teach Junior Shorthand," was ably read by Miss Watterworth. Considerable discussion followed on the different methods employed in the teaching of the subject. (See page 397.)

Mr. Bailey was not present, and his paper was postponed until the following day at 11 o'clock.

Mr. Ward was asked to deal with the Question Drawer, and a live discussion, led by Mr. Ward, took place on the different difficulties that are daily confronting the teacher.

APRIL 11TH.

The meeting opened at 9.00 a.m., and the programme proceeded as follows:

Reports of Committees—These were found to be satisfactory.

Miss Cragg, Woodstock, dealt with the "Correlation of Book-keeping and Business Law."

A paper on "Methods in Senior Shorthand" was given by Mr. Baird, Toronto. (See page 390.)

The following officers were elected for the coming year:

President.....Mr. T. W. Oates, London.

Vice-President.....Miss G. M. Watterworth, Orillia.

Secretary-Treasurer Miss M. Doherty, Stratford.

Councillors.....Mr. Shurtliff, Miss File, Mr. R. B. Hare, Miss Tanner, Mr. E. C. Srigley, Miss Mallory.

Representative to the College and High School Department, and to the Board of Directors..Mr. Wm. Ward, B.A., B.Paed, Toronto.

Moved by Mr. Srigley, seconded by Miss Mallory, that the papers read before this Section of the Association be published in the Report. Carried.

Miss Tanner, St. Thomas, then outlined the method she follows in the teaching of Typewriting. Miss Tanner, for the greater part of the year, puts the emphasis on *accuracy*, speed coming second. An enthusiastic discussion followed.

Mr. Bailey, Toronto, gave a most interesting address on "The New Ontario Writing Course, and How to Use It." Mr. Bailey impressed upon his hearers the necessity of carefully following the suggestions contained in the Manual, if results are to be achieved in the use of the new Writing Course. Judging by the large number present to listen to Mr. Bailey's address, the teachers are keenly alive to the importance of the subject.

The meeting then adjourned.

(Miss) A. B. STONE,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF CONTINUATION SECTION.

APRIL 10TH, 1917.

Meeting was called to order at 10.45 a.m., with the President in the chair. Owing to the lateness of the hour, the order was changed, and Mr. Stevenson was called on for his address. Then followed the President's address on the school outlook after the war, which was very well received.

Mr. Judge was appointed press reporter.

Miss Rice and Miss Echardt were appointed auditors.

Meeting adjourned.

Afternoon session called at 2 p.m.

After Mr. Hoag's interesting address, Dean H. T. J. Coleman addressed the Section on "National Ideals in Education."

On motion of D. E. Smith and G. A. Clarke, a vote of thanks was tendered to Messrs. Stevenson and Coleman, with instructions that their addresses be published in the Report.

The following Nominating Committee was appointed: The President, the Secretary, Miss Echardt, Miss Vandusen, Miss Crummer.

APRIL 11TH.

Owing to sparse attendance, Dr. Braithwaite's address was dispensed with.

MINUTES OF HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION.

The annual meeting of the High School Principals' Section of the Ontario Educational Association was held in the West Hall of Toronto University at 10 a.m. Wednesday, April 11th, 1917.

A. P. Gundry, B.A., of Galt, was elected Chairman of the Section on account of the death of the President, Mr. T. Murray, B.A., of Owen Sound.

In thanking the Section for his appointment, Mr. Gundry paid an eloquent tribute to the late President. He also spoke feelingly of the late Principal Redditt, of Barrie, and Principal Steele, of Orangeville.

On motion of F. P. Gavin, B.A., of Windsor, and A. E. Coombes, M.A., B.Paed., of St. Catharines, the new President and the Secretary were instructed to draft resolutions of sympathy and forward them to the families of the deceased, after making a record of the same in the minutes. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and confirmed.

The Secretary-Treasurer, G. H. Reed, M.A., North Toronto, presented the financial report, which showed a credit balance of \$13.17.

The first subject, "Should the Annual Report be Based on the Academic Rather than on the Calendar Year?" was taken up by R. A. Gray, B.A., of Oakwood Collegiate Institute. The present method of estimating the attendance by calendar year swells the total attendance, but yields a low average. This gives a wrong idea of actual attendance and serves as the basis of incorrect conclusions in regard to the High Schools. He would have the Financial Report based on the calendar year and the Attendance on the academic. He advised that a strong deputation wait on the Minister in regard to the matter.

On motion of A. E. Coombs, seconded by F. P. Gavin, R. A. Gray and the Secretary were appointed a committee, with power to add to their number, to interview the Minister with the object of having the desired change effected.

A Nominating Committee was then appointed, consisting of C. A. Mayberry, J. D. Dickson, A. W. Burt, A. E. Coombs and F. P. Gavin.

J. H. Dolan, B.A., Oshawa, took up the subject of "Irregular Attendance." The causes of this evil he held to be due either to the slackness of the home in this regard or to the carelessness of the pupil himself. He advocated giving a bonus of 3 per cent. at the term examinations for regular attendance, apart from sickness, and conferring with the parents in regard to the matter. Steadiness and persistence in dealing with the evil must be the chief remedy.

E. O. Sliter, B.A., said he kept a blacklist of students irregular in attendance, and placed them under special discipline.

A. H. McDougall, B.A., LL.D., of Ottawa, would see the parents and show to them that there was an actual cash value in regular attendance.

J. D. Christie, B.A., Simeoe, who also was to have spoken on this subject, wrote the Secretary some months before that, through ill-health, he had been granted leave by his School Board to spend some time in the Southern States to recuperate. He regretted very much his inability to be present and meet with his fellow-teachers, whom he esteemed so highly.

E. O. Sliter, M.A., of Kingston, spoke on "The Attitude of the Staff Towards School Sports." (See page 401.)

The sports, he said, developed in the pupils fair play, a good spirit under defeat, a healthy tone in the school, and better relations between teachers and pupils.

The staff should exercise control of the sports in order to ensure proper care. The teacher in charge should act as financial manager of the school teams, should direct practice, and select the team. The boys, however, should choose their own captain.

The boy who neglected his studies, or who violated the rules of the school, should be debarred from playing on the team.

On motion of R. A. Gray, Mr. Sliter's paper was ordered to be printed.

A. W. Burt, B.A., of Brantford, dealt with the subject, "Means Taken to Secure Proper Division of Home-Work Time."

The difficulty in securing a proper division of the time he held to be due to two chief causes. Either some energetic and forceful teacher gives too much home-work and sees that it is done, or some skilful teacher, relying mainly on the lesson in the school, may be careless in insisting on home-work.

No general rules on the matter can be laid down. He would recommend, in a moderate way, study-periods, alternating with lesson-periods. Optional subject periods might be thus used under the supervision, of course, of some teacher.

The best cure would be fewer subjects on the programme and fewer pupils in a class.

Home-work should be largely a review or research work.

C. A. Mayberry brought in the report of the Nominating Committee. The report was adopted. As a result, the following were elected as officers for the next year:

President.....Arthur P. Gundry, B.A., Galt Collegiate Institute.

Secretary-Treasurer George H. Reed, M.A., B.Paed., North Toronto High School.

Councillors.....J. H. Dolan, B.A., Oshawa High School; W. B. Wyndham, B.A., Oakville High School; Geo. F. Rogers, B.A., London Collegiate Institute.

The following are the letters of sympathy which were ordered to be drafted and placed in the minutes. Copies of the same have been forwarded to the families of the deceased.

TORONTO, APRIL 30TH, 1917.

Dear Mrs. Murray and Family:

At the recent meeting of the High School Principals' Section of the Ontario Educational Association, I was instructed by resolution of the members to write to you to express their sympathy with you and the high esteem in which your late husband was held by his friends and colleagues, the Principals of the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of this Province.

Mr. Murray rose very rapidly to the front rank of his profession. He was known far and wide, not only as one of the very best teachers, but also as one of the most respected and capable Principals.

At the time of his death he was President of the High School Principals' Section of the Ontario Educational Association, and had at different times occupied other positions in the Association.

In his sudden death the Province has lost one of its leading educationalists, the teaching profession one of its most gifted members, the Principals their most efficient and popular Chairman.

Individually, many of us mourn a true friend and good comrade. It will be long before his place can be even partially filled, either in the community where he lived, the Association to which he belonged, or in the hearts of the friends he made wherever he went.

His was the strong, courageous and kindly nature of a leader of men, and we feel we can ill afford to lose him, but "His will be done."

In the trust that God may comfort you,

I am yours very sincerely,

GEO. H. REED,

*Secretary High School Principals' Section,
Ontario Educational Association.*

TORONTO, APRIL 30TH, 1917.

Dear Mrs. Steele and Family:

At the recent meeting of the High School Principals' Section of the Ontario Educational Association, I was instructed by resolution of the members to write to you to express their sympathy with you and the high esteem in which your late husband was held by his friends and colleagues, the Principals of the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of the Province.

For many years Mr. Steele occupied a foremost place in his profession; he was recognized as an eminent educationalist, not only by the High School teachers, but by the general public as well. He had been honoured by his associates in the profession by election to every office within their organization, including that of President of the Ontario Educational Association, in which representative position he brought honour and respect from the general public to the class he represented.

For thirty-six years he had been the honoured Principal of one of the best-managed and most successful High Schools in the Province. Pupils of his are everywhere, and everywhere by them his fame as a teacher has been spread.

The High School Principals desire to express their appreciation of his work as a Principal, their respect for his learning and broad-mindedness, their pleasure at knowing him intimately as a colleague, their gratitude for his many acts of kindness towards them personally, and their grief that he will no more occupy his long-familiar and prominent place in their Association.

Many also mourn him as a personal friend of many years' standing, and these, who knew him most intimately, feel his loss most keenly.

Trusting Divine Providence will comfort and sustain you,

I am yours most sincerely,

GEO. H. REED,

*Secretary High School Principals' Section,
Ontario Educational Association.*

TORONTO, APRIL 30TH, 1917.

Dear Mrs. Redditt and Family:

At the recent meeting of the High School Principals' Section of the Ontario Educational Association, I was instructed by resolution of the members to write to you to express their sympathy with you and the high esteem in which your late husband was held by his friends and colleagues, the Principals of the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of this Province.

In the death of Mr. Redditt the Province has lost a teacher who, in a marked degree, moulded the character of the youth of the country.

His passing is an irreparable loss, especially to Barrie and district; his long and successful Headmastership of Barrie Collegiate Institute is a brilliant testimony of his capability as an educationalist.

By many Mr. Redditt was regarded as an ideal Head Master. His polished manner and the dignity of his bearing had a very decided influence for good upon all his pupils. His love of truth was a dominant feature; no consideration of fear or favor ever made him deviate in the slightest from what he believed to be right.

He was one of those independent spirits who often run counter to public opinion, and often he was not understood by those who did not know him well.

He was one of the wittiest of men, and his sense of humor was intensely keen. Combined with these qualities, he had a kindly and sympathetic nature, ready at all times to advise and assist his

students, and yet at the same time has was a rigid disciplinarian, whose decision was always right, and which, once made, was irrevocable.

In the years to come his name will be closely identified with the highest and best educational influences of the Province.

With the prayer that God may abundantly bless you,

I am yours sincerely,

GEO. H. REED,

*Secretary High School Principals' Section,
Ontario Educational Association.*

MINUTES OF SUPERVISING AND TRAINING DEPT.

THURSDAY, APRIL 12, 1917.

The annual meeting was held in Room 11, University of Toronto, with the President, Wm. Prenderfast, B.A., B.Paed., in the chair.

The minutes of previous meeting were read and confirmed.

The President nominated Inspector Denyes to act as Press Representative.

Messrs. Moore, Marshall, White and Walks were appointed a Nominating Committee.

The President then gave an address on "The Linguistic Proclivities of the Teacher-in-Training."

Dr. Coleman, Dr. Putman and Inspectors Standing, McCool and Denyes took part in the discussion.

Messrs. J. W. Marshall and E. T. White presented the report of the Nominating Committee, and the following officers were elected:

President.....G. G. McNab, M.A., Renfrew.

Vice-President.....N. McDougall, B.A., Petrolea.

Secretary-Treasurer S. Silcox, D.Paed., Stratford.

On motion of Dr. Putman and G. G. McNab, Dr. Coleman, Queen's University, was appointed representative of the Supervising

and Training Department on Standing Committee, on Legislation and Discipline.

Inspector Craig of Kemptville and Mr. E. T. White of London delivered able addresses on the subject, "Is the Ontario Public School Meeting the Public Needs?" Inspector Craig pointed out that the Public School should promote the physical, intellectual and emotional development of the pupils, and should provide training for vocational life and for citizenship. In most of these respects the Public School was meeting the public needs very inadequately.

(For Mr. White's paper, see page 411.)

Discussion was entered into by Inspectors Marshall, Standing, Dr. Putman, Green and Stevens.

Two very interesting and carefully prepared addresses were then given by Inspector Edwards, London, and Dr. Silcox, Stratford, on the subject: "How Can the Normal School Staffs and the Public and Separate School Inspectors Co-operate in a More Useful Way than at Present?" (See page 405.)

Dr. Silcox emphasized the following points:

1. Normal School Masters and Inspectors should meet as frequently as possible.
2. Inspectors should visit the Normal Schools.
3. Normal School Masters should visit rural schools.
4. Extension work should be carried on throughout Normal School districts by Normal School Masters and Inspectors.
5. Women's Institutes should be organized.

Dr. Putman and Dr. Coleman took part in the discussion.

Some discussion took place on the matter of having a longer meeting of the Supervising and Training Dept., and it was arranged that the Executives of the Department and Sections concerned should deal with the matter with a view to having more time allowed for the meeting of the Supervising and Training Department.

G. G. McNAB,

Secretary.

MINUTES OF INSPECTORS' SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 10TH.

In the absence of President Marshall, Inspector Maxwell was unanimously appointed as temporary Chairman.

The meeting was opened with devotional exercises by the Chairman.

On motion of Inspectors Michell and Jordan, a committee consisting of the mover and seconder, together with Inspectors Maxwell and Burgess, was appointed to draft a resolution of condolence, to be sent to the families of deceased members of the Inspectors' Section.

At this stage Inspector Forester was introduced by Inspector Michell, and Inspector Corkill by Inspector Johnson.

Inspector Conn was appointed Press Reporter, and Inspectors Power and Kilmer were appointed Auditors. The minutes of the 1916 meeting were read and approved.

The following committees were appointed:

On Resolutions—Messrs. Summerby, Conn and Maxwell.

On Nominations—Messrs. Mulloy, Denyes and Johnson.

Inspector Chapman, of Toronto, then presented his paper on "Civics." Discussion followed by Inspector Jordan. (See page 440.)

On motion of Messrs. Michell and Jordan, it was decided to publish Inspector Chapman's paper on "Civics." At this stage the President arrived and took the chair.

Then followed the President's address, in which he made reference to the Gary schools. Discussion followed by Messrs. Hoag and Mills. (See page 415.)

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Dr. F. W. Merchant gave his paper on "The Training of the Teacher as a Phase of the Inspector's Work." Discussion followed by Messrs. Slemon, Jordan, Chisholm, McCool, Mulloy, and Stevens. On motion, it was resolved to have Dr. Merchant's paper printed in the Minutes. (See page 418.)

At this stage two new members were introduced—Inspector Robinson, of Wentworth, by Dr. Putman, and Separate School Inspector Lee, by Inspector Michell.

Inspector Denyes, of Halton, then presented his paper on "Uniform Promotion Examinations." Discussion followed by Messrs. Kilmer, Lees, Campbell, Houston and Thompson.

WEDNESDAY, A.M., APRIL 11TH.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

President.....Dr. Putman, Ottawa.

Secretary.....Inspector J. F. Power, Toronto.

Director.....Inspector C. W. Mulloy, Aurora.

On motion of Messrs. Moore and Scovell, it was decided that the Secretary of this Association should in future be paid the sum of \$10 a year for his services, and that this payment should also be made for 1916.

On motion of Messrs. Thompson and Smith (Stratford), it was decided that we should pay any incidental expenses incurred by our representative on the official Board of the Supervising and Training Department.

On motion of Messrs. Thompson and Michell, it was agreed that Dr. Putman should be the Inspectors' nominee on the Pension Board Commission.

On motion of Inspector Rogers, of Toronto, seconded by Inspector Lees, it was unanimously resolved that, "As this Section of the Ontario Educational Association represents interests of the largest import to the State, and as the experience of the members of this Department has been wide and intensive and obtained through fires of difficulty, and as the needs of this Department require that means should be adopted to impress its importance on all who are concerned therein, it is desirable to take immediate and persistent steps to that end. Be it, therefore, resolved that a committee (consisting of Inspectors Thompson, McNab and the mover and seconder of this resolution) be appointed to consider and report ways and means by which the interests and influence of this Section may be promoted and extended."

Inspector Payment then gave his paper on "The Rise and Progress of Mathematics." On motion, it was decided to have the paper printed in the Report of the Proceedings. (See page 431.)

Inspector Day, of Orillia, then gave his address on "School Fairs." Discussion followed by Messrs. Smith (Chatham), Craig and Thompson.

On resolution, it was decided to appoint a committee consisting of Inspectors Smith, Day and Putman, to interview the Superintendent of Education regarding certain changes in the school agricultural forms required by the Department.

On motion of Messrs. Lees and Scovell, it was decided that the Teachers' Institutes in rural inspectorates might conveniently be held, part of them one week and the remaining part another week.

Inspector Kilmer, of Brantford, then read his paper on "The Inspector's Relation to the Junior High School Entrance Examination. Discussion followed by Messrs. Gill, Maxwell and Thompson.

WEDNESDAY, P.M.

Inspector Summerby gave an interesting address on "Old County Boards and County Teachers Before Confederation."

THURSDAY A.M., APRIL 12TH.

The following report was presented by the Committee on Resolutions:

"Moved by D. A. Maxwell, seconded by A. A. Jordan, That this Convention of Public and Separate School Inspectors, now assembled for their annual conference, desires to place on record its appreciation of the splendid services rendered to the cause of education by the late Inspectors N. W. Campbell, of South Grey, D. A. Nesbitt, of Lennox and Addington, W. H. Hallett, of Temiskaming, William MacIntosh, of North Hastings, and J. J. Tilley, formerly Inspector of Model Schools, and that the Secretary of this Association convey our deep sympathy to the members of the families thus bereaved.

Signed by the Committee,

D. A. MAXWELL,
F. L. MICHELL,
A. A. JORDAN,
H. H. BURGESS."

It was moved by Dr. Putman, seconded by Inspector Maxwell, that in future the total fee of this Section be \$1.00. The motion carried.

It was moved by Inspector McNab, seconded by Inspector Forster, that the deficit in the expense of the annual dinner held in the Faculty of Education Building be paid from the funds of this Section, but that such action shall not be taken as a precedent.

The Auditors reported that they had examined the accounts of the Secretary-Treasurer and found them correct. They also reported a balance to the credit of the Section amounting to \$125.70.

On motion of Messrs. Thompson and McCool, it was decided to appoint Messrs. Marshall, McNab, Jordan, Powers and Putman a Committee to wait on the Minister to urge upon him the need of re-adjusting the salaries of rural inspectors.

On motion, the Section adjourned to meet again in 1918.

J. H. PUTMAN,

Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE TRAINING SECTION.

TORONTO, APRIL 9TH, 1917.

The Training Section of the Ontario Educational Association met at 10 a.m. on the above date, in Room 65, in the University of Toronto, with the President, A. Stevenson, B.A., London, in the chair. In the absence of the Secretary, Mr. J. A. Irwin, Toronto, M. A. Sorsoleil, B.A., Toronto, was appointed Secretary *pro tem*.

The minutes of the last annual meeting were read and confirmed.

On motion, the President and Secretary were appointed a Committee to confer with the Inspectors' Section concerning the nomination for the Presidency of the Association.

G. W. Hofferd, M.A., London, presented an excellent paper on "The Value of Hygiene as a School Study." The speaker emphasized the need of continuing the subject of Hygiene as a part of the Lower School Science Course.

Mr. J. Lewis, of the *Toronto Star*, read a very practical paper on the subject, "Educational Aims." The words of appreciation

expressed by Mr. Dearness and the vote of thanks proposed by the same speaker were heartily endorsed.

APRIL 11TH, 1917.

A. Stevenson, B.A., London, President, addressed the Section on "A Twentieth Century Grammar." The President traced the changes in successive grammar texts, and pointed out the need of simplification to meet the changes in modern speech. (See page 451.)

Mr. Sorsoleil read a paper on "The Student in the Practice Teaching School." On resolution, it was decided to have the President's address and the paper by Mr. Sorsoleil published in the Report of the Proceedings. (See page 444.)

The following officers were elected for 1918:

President H. J. Crawford, B.A., Toronto.

Secretary-Treasurer M. A. Sorsoleil, B.A., Toronto.

Directors W. E. Macpherson, B.A., Kingston; D. Eagle, Windsor.

As a result of the discussion on the paper read by Mr. Hofferd on the previous day, it was moved by Mr. John Dearness, and seconded by W. J. Chisholm, M.A., "That in the opinion of the Training Section, the course in Biology in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes should be modified in such a way as to make room for the inclusion of a practical course of instruction on the functions of the body, without adding to the quantity of work now required." The motion was carried.

The Section then adjourned to the Physics Building, where J. T. Crawford, B.A., Toronto, gave a most interesting lecture, illustrated with lantern slides, on the subject, "The Old and the New in Arithmetic."

At 6 o'clock the members of the Supervising and Training Department met at an informal banquet at the U. T. S., where a most enjoyable hour was spent.

APRIL 12TH, 1917.

The Training Section met with the Supervising and Training Department.

M. A. SORSOLEIL,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, TUESDAY, APRIL 10TH, 1917.

The annual meeting of Trustees of the Province of Ontario was held for this year in the University building. The first session was held at 2 p.m., with Dr. E. H. Wickware, Smith's Falls, in the chair.

Rev. James Buchanan, Elmvalle, opened the meeting with prayer.

Sixty-two members registered the first afternoon.

Communications were read from Messrs. W. A. Parks, Secretary Royal Ontario Museum; J. S. Davis, Smithville; W. D. Graham, Arnprior; W. C. Wilkinson, Secretary Board, Toronto; R. H. Wallace, Meaford; R. Clark, Merriton.

Moved by Mr. Ormiston, and seconded by Mr. J. H. Laughton, that all correspondence be filed, and Secretary be instructed to write the Secretary of the Ontario Museum, thanking him for the invitation extended to the meeting to pay a visit to the Museum. Carried.

TREASURER'S STATEMENT.

Receipts.

Balance brought forward.....	\$78 40
Membership fees	130 25
Total.....	<hr/> \$208 65

Disbursements.

General Secretary	\$36 00
Railways	15 75
Printing	9 25
Secretary—Disbursements and allowances.....	108 85
Balance	38 80
Total.....	<hr/> \$208 65

Moved by Messrs. Ormiston and Waugh, that the Treasurer's report be received and referred to the Auditors. Carried.

Moved by Messrs. Buchanan and Wright, that Messrs. Ormiston and Waugh be appointed Auditors, to report on Wednesday morning. Carried.

Messrs. Brenner, McNee and Doolittle were appointed the members of the Press Committee.

The appointment of delegates to the Educational Department was laid over until Wednesday morning.

The question of how best to proceed in the matter of the election of officers was discussed, and it was finally agreed to lay it over until Wednesday morning.

The minutes as printed in the Proceedings of the General Association were adopted.

President, Dr. E. H. Wickware, delivered his address. (See page 457.)

A committee, consisting of Messrs. J. J. Mistele, H. H. Goodfellow, C. S. Birtch, E. Gregory and W. A. Brenner, was named to deal with the President's address, and bring in a report at as early a time as possible.

At 3 p.m., Mr. D. L. Sprague, Director of Technical Education, Hamilton, delivered an able address on Technical Education, which was attentively listened to and appreciated. The speaker's knowledge of the subject was presented in a very clear and instructive manner, and brought forth many enquiries at the close of his delivery of the address, which gave him an opportunity of explaining points of interest brought forth in the address. Among the many questions asked relative to the subject were: "The standpoint of the taxpayer," "The matter of preparedness in life's work of pupils who are now leaving Public and High Schools and journeying through life and end in the blind alley, finally," "The percentage of pupils leaving schools without such qualifications which could be remedied by Technical School work," "How to work out the problem in rural schools with lady teachers," "As to Manual, Technical and Industrials Schools, and the work being done by them respectively." "The age of pupils" was considered as to when to start Manual Training and Technical School classes. The question, "Would the extension

of age limit (by adding another year to school age) help out in solving the problem?" "Solving the problem in the Province of Manitoba by the Consolidated School System." (See page 465.)

The Secretary suggested that a good working committee be appointed to consider the various phases of the question, and report to the 1918 meeting.

Evidence of the successful working out of Manual Training Schools where they are established was given by representatives from such schools.

It was moved by Messrs. Laughton and Doolittle, that this Department thank the speaker for his splendid address, and that a synopsis of it be published in our Proceedings, and that the Press Committee be given particulars of the address. Carried.

The mover and seconder referred to the very great importance of dealing with the question, and urged the meeting that steps should be taken to gather all the information possible and bring it before the Trustee's Section at as early a date as possible, as there no doubt would be the greatest need of some such system being generally introduced into our present Ontario system of education. They referred to the noble work being done by our boys in the trenches, and said the Province of Ontario should provide means of instruction for those who upon returning might require assistance.

Dr. Merchant, Director of Industrial Schools, being present, the chairman invited the Doctor to address the meeting. The Doctor willingly complied with the request, and said, among other things, that he regretted very much that he was unable to be present to hear the address, but, knowing of the success attending Mr. Sprague's work in Hamilton, he knew the members present would be benefited by Mr. Sprague addressing the meeting, and referred to the part-time system introduced in Hamilton, saying it had worked out to good advantage. The Doctor willingly replied to many questions asked by the members.

It was moved by Messrs. Farewell and Davis, that a committee be appointed to take into consideration the matter of Vocational and Technical Training, and report at the next meeting of the Associa-

tion, with a recommendation for action upon the question, said committee to be composed of Messrs. J. H. Laughton, A. Werner, D. L. Sprague, A. Roberts, M. Parkinson, J. E. Farewell, J. S. Davis, Geo. E. Proctor and the President for 1918, J. B. Waugh.

The meeting adjourned, to meet on Wednesday at 9.15.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH.

The second session was held this morning, beginning at 9.15 with the President, Dr. Wickware, in the chair.

The Secretary read the minutes of the previous meeting, which, upon motion by Messrs. Kirby and Schneider, were approved.

Notice of motion given by Mr. J. E. Farewell was held over until later on during the meeting.

The Auditors presented the following report:—

“We, the Auditors appointed, beg to report that we have audited the accounts of the Treasurer, and find the same correct.”

J. B. WAUGH,

W. S. ORMISTON.

Moved by Messrs. Waugh and Stewart, that the Auditors' report be adopted. Carried.

Messrs. Lee and Wright moved and seconded, that we appoint a Nominating Committee to deal with the nomination of officers for the ensuing year in the Trustees' Department, and that the matter of appointment of delegates to the Department of Education be made by this meeting as a whole. Carried.

The following six gentlemen were appointed the Nominating Committee by the President: Messrs. J. B. Waugh, S. Kirby, W. A. Brenner, A. McNee, W. S. Wright and J. J. Mistelet.

The following gentlemen were elected by ballot as delegates to the Department of Education: Messrs. E. A. Doolittle, T. S. Kirby, J. G. Elliot and A. Roberts.

REPORT ON PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

Your Committee beg leave to report as follows:—

We desire to congratulate the President on the excellence of his address. His treatment of the different educational problems is, at

once sane, reasonable and progressive. In his preamble a fitting welcome was extended to all members, new and old, a cordial invitation was extended to all to take an active part in the discussion, to state their complaints and difficulties, and a promise made that all would receive consideration as far as time would permit. We are particularly pleased to note that a place has been given in the printed Programme for delegates to introduce any topic they may desire to have discussed.

Your Committee desires to give its general approval of the various opinions expressed on the different subjects dealt with in his address, and would call the attention of the delegates to the following:

1. The matter of adjusting the Public School curriculum.
2. The compulsory medical or dental inspection of all children in all schools.
3. Amendment to the Truancy Act, which shall place the truancy officer under the direct control of the School Board, but no adjusting of the age of compulsory attendance.
4. Compulsory military training.
5. School Fairs.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

J. J. MISTELE,
C. S. BIRTCH,
W. A. BRENNER,
H. F. GOODFELLOW.

Moved by J. J. Mistele, seconded by Mr. W. A. Brenner, that the report be received. Carried.

At 10.10 a.m., Mr. G. W. Fluker, of Smith's Falls, gave an eloquent address on "Music in the Schools: Its Value and Influence."

It was moved by Rev. Mr. Buchanan, and seconded by Mr. Goulding, that we extend to Mr. Fluker our appreciation of his interesting, instructive and inspiring address, and that the paper be printed in our minutes and published in the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association. Carried. (See page 469.)

Other members joined in with expressions of delight and extreme appreciation of the contents of the paper. Among others were Messrs. Elliot, of Kingston; Dr. Brown, Toronto; Dr. Waugh, Stratford, and Mr. Wright, St. Thomas.

At 11 a.m., Mr. T. Sidney Kirby, of Ottawa, gave a paper on the "Adolescent School Attendance Act." (See page 475.)

It was moved by Mr. Lee, of Hamilton, seconded by Mr. Proctor, of Sarnia, that the thanks of this Association be extended to Mr. Kirby for his able and practical address, and that the same be printed in our Minutes and published in the Proceedings. Carried.

The question of vital issue dealt with in the paper, the conditions after the war, and other matters considered by Mr. Kirby, were spoken to by Messrs. Roberts, Proctor and Ormiston.

The notice of motion given by Messrs. Farewell and J. S. Davis was, upon motion by above gentlemen, considered, and some additional names added, the following gentlemen to constitute the committee: Messrs. J. H. Laughton, London; A. Werner, Elmira; D. L. Sprague, Hamilton; T. Sydney Kirby, Ottawa; A. Roberts, St. Thomas; M. Parkinson, Toronto; J. B. Waugh, Stratford; J. E. Farewell, Whitby; J. S. Davis, Smithville; G. E. Proctor, Sarnia; Dr. Brown, Toronto. Carried.

The meeting then adjourned till 2.15 p.m.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

The meeting met promptly at 2.15 p.m., President Dr. E. H. Wickware in the chair.

NOMINATING COMMITTEE REPORT.

The Committee on Nominations recommended the following members as officers for the ensuing year:—

President Dr. J. B. Waugh, Stratford.
Vice-President C. S. Birtch, Ottawa.
Director Dr. E. H. Wickware, Smith's Falls.

Secretary-Treasurer. A. Werner, Elmira.

Executive.....Messrs. W. A. Brenner, St. Thomas; Lyman Lee, Hamilton; J. M. Amey, Drayton; W. J. Packham, Brampton; Chas. E. Kidd, Gananoque; E. D. Lang, Kitchener; J. S. Davis, Smithville.

Moved by Mr. Kirby, and seconded by Mr. Stewart, that the report of the Nominating Committee be approved and adopted. Carried.

RE TRUANCY ACT.

The question of the consideration of the Truancy Act in the report of the Committee under Section 3, was generally discussed. Among others, the following gentlemen spoke: Messrs. Farewell, Elliot, Davis, Laschinger, Mistele, Dr. Brown, Morris, and Inspector Taylor, but no action was taken thereon at this particular time.

RE DRILL INSTRUCTION IN COMMITTEE'S REPORT.

It was moved by Mr. Lee, seconded by Mr. Foster, that this Association memorialize the Department of Education to amend the regulation requiring that a drill instructor in Collegiate Institutes and High Schools hold a specialist's certificate, so that it shall not apply to a Collegiate Institute or High School where the drill instructor devotes his whole time to drill instruction and physical culture. Carried.

Dr. Hunter, a member of the Toronto Board of Education, being present, addressed the meeting on school difficulties and problems in the city, and suggested that, among other things, the appointment of some organization to be known as the "Teachers' Council," who could render great assistance in the administration of school affairs.

Mr. Vokes, a member of the Toronto Board of Education, had previously extended a hearty invitation to the members to pay a visit to their Administration Building, on College Street, and now renewed the invitation, asking the members to meet the Toronto Board at their building on Thursday, at 2 p.m.

The meeting thanked the members of the Toronto Board for the kind invitation.

(A number of the members accepted the invitation, and spent a pleasant time with them.)

At 3.35 p.m., a joint meeting with Inspectors, to hear a paper by Dr. Wallace Seccombe, on "School Dentistry." Unfortunately, the Doctor had contracted a very heavy cold, and Mr. J. G. Elliot, of Kingston, kindly consented to read the address. (See page 511.)

It was moved by Mr. Elliot, seconded by Mr. Tracy, that a vote of thanks be extended to the Doctor for his able paper, and that it be printed in the Minutes. Carried.

Various phases of the Doctor's paper brought out questions from Members:—

Mr. Kilmer, Brantford—As to opposition by parents.

Mr. Gibb, Blenheim—As to Normal School. Instructions to be given to teachers on some of the principal subjects.

Mr. Ormiston, Uxbridge—The difficulty of introducing the inspection by reason of cost.

Mr. Smith, Gravenhurst—Present provisions by Women's Institutes.

Mr. Laughton, London—The question resolves itself into an educative measure from the trustee standpoint, rather than a compulsory measure from the Department.

Mr. Putnam, Inspector, Ottawa—As to the success attending their efforts in Ottawa, and cost thereof.

Mr. Denyes, Inspector, Halton County, suggested that some literature could be prepared on the subject and distributed among the various inspectorates. It would be the means of bringing the attention of this matter to the School Boards.

Mr. Moriss—Some work could be done at all times by the teachers at present employed acting in conjunction with the trustees.

The matter was finally referred to the Legislative Committee to deal with it.

4.30. A paper by Col. J. E. Farewell, K.C., of Whitby, "Stop, Look, Listen." The Colonel, who has taken a deep interest in children's welfare all his life, and who has given much attention to

educational interests, and especially in the work of the Trustees' Section of the Association, gave a very interesting paper: See page 484.)

Moved by Mr. Wright, and seconded by Mr. Treacy, that the paper of Col. Farewell, "Stop, Look, Listen," be printed in the Proceedings, and that the meeting tender its hearty thanks for his able and timely advice and inspiring address. Carried.

Moved by Messrs. Laughton and Wright, that provided a Legislative Committee is appointed by the General Association, Rev. J. Buchanan be named the representative on such committee from this Section.

Mr. J. G. Elliot, Kingston, addressed the meeting on the question of the great necessity of stimulating all efforts on increased production, showing how trustees can by their efforts help doing their bit in bringing it before the people.

Mr. Robb spoke in favor of bringing about increased production.

The President was asked to vacate the chair for a few minutes, and Mr. Laughton requested to occupy it, and the following motion was read:—

Moved by Mr. Roberts, seconded by Mr. Wright, that the Trustees' Department recommend the Department of Education to allow more laxity or flexibility in the Public School curriculum, so that on recommendation of School Boards and Public School Inspectors, if any subjects deemed more vital than another may be used, and any subject less important may be lessened or dropped altogether to make room for such adjustment.

Amendment: Moved by Mr. Davis, seconded by Mr. Lee, that the matter of adjustment of the Public School curriculum be left over in the meantime until the next meeting of the Association, and referred to the Technical School Committee. Carried.

Moved by Messrs. Lee and Brenner, that this Section endorses the principle of Compulsory Cadet Military Training in our Public Schools and Collegiate Institutes and High Schools. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Henderson, seconded by Mr. Wright, that this Association of Trustees memorialist the Department of Education to have:

1. The Truancy Act changed so as to allow Public School Boards in cities, towns and villages to appoint their own truant officer.

2. The school age of admission be six years.

3. That once a pupil starts to school, they will come under the Truancy Act as long as they continue in school.

Clauses 1 and 3 carried.

Clause 2 lost.

Moved by Mr. Brenner, seconded by Mr. Mistele, that the report of the Committee on the President's Address be accepted as amended. Carried.

Mr. Laughton then vacated the chair, and President Wickware again filled the chair.

Moved by Mr. Elliot, seconded by Mr. Lee, that this Section deprecates the regulation of the Department of Education by which physical training will hereafter be carried out by the employment of male and female instructors. We recommend that the regulation for the present be left at the option of Boards of Education. Carried.

Meeting adjourned till Thursday, at 9.15 a.m.

THURSDAY, APRIL 12TH.

The meeting opened sharp at 9.15 a.m., with President Dr. Wickware in the chair.

The minutes of the two previous meetings on Wednesday were read, and upon motion by Mr. Brenner and seconded by Mr. Stewart, were confirmed.

Moved by Mr. Lyman Lee, Hamilton, seconded by Mr. J. G. Elliot, Kingston, that in future sessions of this Trustees' Section of the Ontario Educational Association, Wednesday afternoon be devoted to consideration and discussion of matters relating to education in urban municipalities. Carried.

Moved by Mr. J. G. Elliott, seconded by Mr. E. A. Doolittle, that the names of President Waugh and Secretary Werner be added to the Legislative Committee, and that the expenses of the delegation in meeting with the Department of Education be paid by this Section. Carried.

Committee: Messrs. E. A. Doolittle, Orillia; J. G. Elliott, Kingston; A. Roberts, St. Thomas; T. Sidney Kirby, Ottawa; Dr. Waugh, Stratford; A. Werner, Elmira.

At 10 a.m., Prof. O. J. Stevenson, O. A. C., Guelph, read an excellent paper on "Training of Teachers for Rural Schools." (See page 490.)

Moved by Rev. James Buchanan, seconded by Mr. W. J. Robb, that the thanks of this department be given to Prof. Stevenson for his helpful address, and that his paper be printed in the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association, and that permission of the Professor be obtained to publish and circulate the paper among the Trustee Boards of the Province. Carried.

Doctors Hodgson and Noble, Toronto Board of Education; Rev. Mr. Buchanan and others, in speaking on the contents of the paper, referred to the excellence of the paper and the many instructive references made therein bearing on the economic and social sides of life, and others referred to the way suggested by the Professor in which a remedy could be found, namely, by consolidating schools, special training, and by the extension system.

At 10.45 a paper on "Rural School Needs" was given by Mr. J. A. Taylor, Public School Inspector, St. Thomas and Elgin County.

Mrs. Courtice, a member of the Toronto Board of Education, who was visiting our Section this afternoon, said she regretted not being able to have been with us before, and expressed her pleasure in listening to the address given by Inspector Taylor.

Mr. Davis, of Smithville, Mr. Kidd, of Gananoque, and others, spoke of the excellence of the address.

Moved by Mr. Davis, seconded by Mr. Brenner, that the very able paper presented by Inspector Taylor, on "Rural School Needs," be printed in the Proceedings, and be circulated for the benefit of the trustees of the Province. Carried. (See page 503.)

Messrs. Robb and Brenner moved and seconded, that this Department of the Ontario Educational Association request the Department of Agriculture to make the question of Consolidated Schools a topic for discussion in the Farmers' Institutes by speakers appointed by the Government. Carried.

Col. Farewell suggested, and was endorsed by Mr. Robb, that the old Committee on Consolidated Schools be reappointed.

Moved by Mr. J. G. Elliot, seconded by Mr. Robb, that this Section endorse the efforts being made by the Government of Ontario

in seeking for greater food production in this the greatest and mightiest year of the War. It appreciates the zeal with which the Department of Education has entered into the campaign. As a Section of the Ontario Educational Association, the Trustees, seized with the demands for greater production, would urge upon the Boards throughout Ontario to aid to their utmost the growth of foodstuffs, so that famine may be overtaken and abundance be provided for Britain and her Allies in their titanic struggle. We suggest the co-ordination of the school, pupils and teachers, so that united work may be obtained in production, and, if necessary, we would approve a lengthening of the vacation time, so that the harvesting may be successful and complete. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Elliott, seconded by Mr. Brenner, that this Section expresses its appreciation of the work performed by Secretary Werner, and recommend the customary honorarium and expenses be paid to him. Carried.

President Wickware was asked to vacate the chair, which was taken by Mr. Elliott.

Moved by Mr. F. W. Wright, St. Thomas, seconded by Mr. Brenner, St. Thomas, that this Department, with gratification, expresses its pleasure at the splendid service rendered by its efficient President, Dr. Wickware, during the past year. We have appreciated his geniality, his courtesy and his abounding enthusiasm in the work of Education and Trustee. May he long continue a valued member of the Trustees' Section. Carried with hearty applause.

This concluded the work of the meeting, which closed by singing "God Save the King."

A. WERNER,
Secretary.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1916-17.

RECEIPTS.

Balance from last statement.....	\$427 44
Membership fees	505 20
Ontario Government grant.....	1,400 00
Bank interest	26 51
Advertisements in programmes.....	60 00

DISBURSEMENTS.

	\$2,419 15
Viseing railway certificates.....	\$45 25
Expenses of Convention.....	25 33
Balance of Supernannuation Com. expenses, 1915-16....	20 94
Music for Convention.....	25 65
Secretaries of Departments.....	40 00
General Secretary's salary.....	200 00
Treasurer's salary.....	50 00
Reporting annual meeting.....	39 00
Railway fares for Board of Directors.....	62 50
Printing circulars, letters, receipts, etc.....	39 95
Commission on advertisements in programmes.....	15 00
Postage for Secretary and Treasurer.....	17 16
Printing and distributing Proceedings.....	409 08
Printing and distributing Programmes.....	201 59
Superannuation Co., 1916-17, secretarial work and post- age.....	298 00
Superannuation Co., 1916-17, railway fares, telephone, etc.....	47 84
Balance	881 86

\$2,419 15

Treasurer.

H. WARD,

TORONTO, 11TH APRIL, 1917.

TO R. W. DOAN, Esq.,

Secretary, Ontario Educational Association.

DEAR SIR,—We, the undersigned Auditors, have the honour to report that we have examined the books, statements and vouchers of the Treasurer, Mr. Henry Ward, and find them correct in every particular.

The receipts for the year amounted to \$2,419.15, and the expenditures to \$1,537.29, leaving a balance on hand at date of audit of \$881.86.

Respectfully submitted,

JOHN DEARNESS,

S. NETHERCOTT,

Auditors.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

DR. FALCONER, PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—Last year the Association met in the new Technical School and we at the University were deprived of the privilege of having you within our precincts. But we are pleased that you expressed a desire to return to the University. And I can assure you that if you were glad to come again to the University, we are very glad also to see you here. The fact that you were away for one year makes our welcome to you all the warmer this year. You come at a time in which you will find us in the University in a very different condition from what we were in two years ago. And you also come from your schools, having left conditions very different from what they were two years ago.

We have all learned much in those two years. We have been putting our education to the test, and I think we may all say that we have not been disappointed. Whatever shortcoming there may have been, our youth have shown that they are able to respond to a worthy call. They have shown high qualities of manhood. And the people who have been trained in those schools, the fathers and the mothers, have shown no less power to sacrifice and to yield everything that they hold dear for the sake of the cause that is supreme.

We are now also looking forward to a future, which I think is brighter; I think we all recognize that it is brighter. And in that future there are many problems that will have to be faced. We who are interested in education must see to it that when new problems come upon the world, ours shall not be forgotten. In the clash of arms, educational problems disappeared for the while, but they will emerge again. And as a result of our experience of these years, experience in which we have been adapting those whom we have been training to the call of public service, we shall certainly be required to fit those who are coming up, those from childhood who

are now advancing towards youth, for a very much larger area of usefulness than we had dreamed of.

What changes have come in the past few weeks! To my mind one of the most momentous is the entrance of the United States into the group of our Allies. That opens up a future, the meaning of which we can hardly understand to-day. It means the possibility of the English-speaking peoples understanding one another again as they have not understood one another for more than 100 years. And what that means for the world we cannot yet, we have not sufficient vision to penetrate. But with the new Empire, with the new relation of English-speaking peoples, with the new democracies of the world, our children and those who are coming into youth have before them opportunities, prospects, that their predecessors would have deemed impossible to hope for.

The dark days, we hope, are behind us. The bright days, we hope, are ahead of us. And when the clouds of this heavy, heavy sorrow pass away we may look forward, I believe, to a very much brighter day than we should have deemed possible two years ago, when you met here. In these circumstances, then, of sadness and yet of hope and optimism, we, in our depleted condition, welcome you who have sent forth boys and girls into service, active enlistment or other national service, we welcome you as co-workers in the cause of education, which, from now on, undoubtedly has prospects that are far brighter than any we have in our lifetime enjoyed.

Again, on the part of the University, I welcome you warmly this evening.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

HON. R. A. PYNE, M.D., LL.D., MINISTER OF EDUCATION,
TORONTO.

Mr. President, Dr. Falconer, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I have had the privilege extended to me on so many occasions of addressing this august body that if I find it difficult to-night to find any subject that might be attractive or entertaining or interesting to you, I do not think I can be blamed. I think this must be the twelfth time that I have had the privilege of saying a few words to you.

And then recently, you know, amongst the many activities of education, one on which I addressed you on many occasions, has now been taken out of the arena of educational activities; I refer to that very innocent Superannuation Bill. In connection with that Bill, I see here and there in this audience members of the teaching profession to whom teachers generally ought to be very grateful for their long, arduous, and never-failing energy in promoting the measure. Now that success has crowned your efforts, I can say as one who knows, that your Committee did good and constant work.

As last year, so during this year, the war still goes on, and naturally our thoughts and ideas turn to that one prominent subject. I am glad to congratulate the Association upon the large gathering that is here, upon the numbers I understand who are attending your meetings, even during the war, an event which is disturbing and disrupting so many excellent movements on the old Continent as well as on this. This year of 1917 marks an epoch in the history of Canada. It is the 50th year of Confederation, and in looking over your programme, I found that this was your 56th annual meeting. Perhaps the great success that has attended Confederation was caused by the Fathers of Confederation following six years after in the footsteps of your Association, and thus declaring for union, consolidation and progress. Let that be as it may, I think it is true—at least I believe it, at any rate—that the great success that has attended this Canadian Nationhood is due in no slight measure to the people I see before me and the teachers who have gone before. They have sown the seed, and you have reaped the harvest in the achievements of this great Confederation, now

in its 50th year, the semi-centennial, as it were, of our nationhood. And all through that time the teachers have been steadily doing their work, inculcating the best possible principles in the youth of this country, all tending to better citizenship.

So I congratulate you in this 50th anniversary of Confederation, upon the valuable work that you have accomplished for Canada all through these long years. We remember the history of the strenuous times when Confederation was brought about, and the great statesmen, prominent amongst them being Brown, and Cartier, and Macdonald, and McDougall, and Tupper, and Tilley, who joined to effect it. These great men, differing politically, differing in many ways, set aside all their party affiliations and joined together in the great work of carrying the union, making the necessary compromise, so that, in 1867, the four provinces, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia united to form the Dominion, followed soon after, as you are aware, by Manitoba, the Northwest Territories and by British Columbia, until, I think in 1873, the accession of Prince Edward Island made one continuous Canada from the Atlantic to the Pacific. For years after Confederation had come into existence there were rumors that it was a confederation that would never bear the stress and strain that might come upon it, and that it was no stronger than a rope of sand. But its founders always believed in its ultimate success. And now, there is one consolation, ladies and gentlemen, we can take from this war: There was never such stress and strain anticipated as has come upon the Dominion on account of this war. Yet they stand together, as we all know, like one man in the defence of Canada and in the defence of the greater Empire to which we belong. So this at least is a consolation to us for these awful events which have been referred to so eloquently by Archdeacon Cody and by Dr. Falconer, events which have brought sadness to so many homes. But who are we? If we ask ourselves that question, we at once get the answer: We are the sons of the English, Irish, Scotch and Welsh who settled in this country, some of us the descendants of the U. E. Loyalist pioneers, and all reflecting the common sentiment which naturally exists to-day in the breasts of the descendants of such people. And that is why you find them to-day, as they are, fighting shoulder to shoulder with Britons for civilization and for liberty in this world. And that sentiment you never can change. Those

statesmen of the day I have spoken of knew who would follow them, and knew that this great Confederation would be in safe hands. The same doubts existed about the permanence of the British Empire that existed about the formation of the Confederation of Canada. And the war brings us consolation regarding the Empire. For there we find sons of people from all over the world rushing to strengthen and uphold the arm of the British people in this great struggle. We come from a stock that is not easily put down, and not ready to give up. Why, in to-night's papers what do you read? "Taken by the Canadians, with the British, 9,000 prisoners and 40 guns." Ladies and gentlemen, 40 guns is more than some of the great nations of the world possessed a very few years ago. In all their stores of artillery they had not 40 guns. It is an extraordinary achievement, this taking of 40 guns, and I was delighted to read the report. If the war has brought sadness to many homes, those who have a relative at the front can console themselves with this feeling: "I was not able to be there myself, but my son has done his duty, or my daughter." Because the sons and daughters of Canada have given themselves freely to this terrific struggle.

Regarding educational affairs, it would not be wise for me, even if I were able, to attempt to discuss old or new ideals in education. I observed that during your sessions to-day in the different sections, you were discussing some 23 or 24 different phases of education. All the professions to-day, the teaching profession as well as the others, are drifting into specialism. Let the specialist deal with these special aspects of education as they are doing in medicine, in law, and in teaching, so that I may safely leave educational ideals to this great body.

Let me say, in conclusion, on behalf of the Government whom I have had the honor of representing now for some years here, I extend to you a welcome to this meeting. Never in the history of the Province or in the history of the present Government could I have done so with a stronger certainty of support for all educational interests. I think the Government is prepared to go any length in support of educational ideas that make for the upbuilding of better citizenship in this Province. I bear to you a special message from the Prime Minister, Sir William Hearst, and that is "to extend to you a hearty welcome to this meeting, and to express the hope that the result of your deliberations will be for the greatest possible advantage of the people of Ontario, of all Canada and the Empire at large. (Applause.)

*PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.**"EDUCATION AND THE WAR"*

MAURICE HUTTON, PRINCIPAL UNIVERSITY COLLEGE.

This war is said to have been made in Germany by the professors: by Treitchke, Nietzsche, Ostwald and Hæeckel: even by Eucken, Wilamowitz-Mollendorf and Harnack: by their teaching of the mission of the German race: by their insistence upon its superior kultur, its superior gifts of thought and comprehension, its greater self-control and power of organization, its greater genius even, according to that strange definition of genius, which explains it away into patience. And, in the second place, and further, by their teaching of and insistence upon, the political superiority of Germany to the rest of Europe: I mean the freedom of its government from the standards of the street: its ability to defy popular ignorance and prejudice, and to legislate from above. The government of Germany was not hampered by the necessity of carrying the people along with it: it had not to "wait and see" till its people were educated. It had not to delay until truths were ripe, were dawning, that is to say, on the popular mind. If the government saw that a thing was wanted, that was sufficient: it announced that thing as law. And the docile German people believed its government and accepted the law and did not scoff and doubt and deride and defy it, like the uneducated, "unreceptive" but independent-minded and self-governing democracies of Great Britain and France, when they heard from *their* governments something which they did not understand and did not like.

Democracies, from the very nature of the case—this was, I think, the argument put before the German people—cannot do anything well, because they are ignorant and prejudiced, but especially they cannot manage foreign politics—"a democracy cannot rule an Empire—" we are just asking that very question about Russia—according to the confession of an old Greek demagogue, because they are doubly ignorant and triply prejudiced. Germany, therefore, was the super-race in all departments of politics because not

a democracy but doubly and triply the super-race in the management of foreign politics. This was the German Government's view and the theme of the Imperial German professors.

But perhaps this is not quite fair to the best German universities and their best professors. The views of the German Government are not necessarily or always the views of the best German thought and the best German professors: the views of the German Government are the views of that German thought and those professors whom the Government thinks best. These professors profess to order: they are Government officials. There is no real freedom of thought in a German University, because, after all, even a German professor is human—even he was not born of a stock or a stone, but of men. He has children at home and a frau Professorin, who have to be fed and clothed. He has to find students, therefore, and popularity, and the Government controls by its smile or frown the supply of popularity and students. His promotion rests on the Government, not on the opinion of his students nor on the judgment of a small academic and independent circle.

It is not, therefore, the independent thought of independent and disinterested thinkers which reaches and moulds all Germany, but the manufactured and interested thought of professors whom the Government promotes and who, in turn, promote the Government. The Government will not actually interfere with the unbelievers and critics among its professors, but it can passively destroy their influence and condemn them to obscurity, because it controls the Universities, even as it controls the trade and the business enterprise of the nation. Its paternal hand is everywhere, its philosopher-King is talking and directing everywhere: there is no real freedom in Germany to think thoughts unlike his.

In Great Britain and France, on the other hand, the natural tendency of intellectual men to break away from conventional opinion, to contradict popular opinion, to damn popular heroes at a venture (as Charles Lamb was used to do), to flout the ignorances and prejudices of a populace and a popularly elected Government, these things always involve a more or less overt antagonism between the thinkers and the Government: and always carry a large proportion of the academic class, professors and school masters, into hostility towards the Government. The Government, in return, either

neglects these men as a negligible minority, whose votes don't count, and whose knowledge is only a nuisance for plain men like themselves—and democratic governments consist more and more of very plain men—or it actively dislikes them and dubs them all cranks alike: some ultra-Radical cranks and some ultra-Tory cranks; but cranks in either case.

You have only to look at England to see that the Government and the Universities do not speak with one voice (as they do in Germany), for two reasons: first, the Government on its side does not control University thought: and second, the Universities on their side, not being controlled by a Government, are apt to have as many thoughts as they have professors, and there is no unanimity or agreement in their voice. In Great Britain there are always Radicals among the University men and the leaders of the teaching profession, who are contemptuous of the Government as not half radical enough. The Greek professor at Oxford used to be one of these. There are also, of course, many Tories, contemptuous of the Government as much too radical and too popular and ignorant. The Government has to steer a path between these extreme men, and it can only approach either extreme, after it has carefully waited to see how far the people have moved in either direction.

The last Government but one, for example, in Great Britain was controlled by a populace and a popular vote, which seemed, up to 1914, very radical, though not radical enough for many Radical professors and men of science, for Professor Gilbert Murray and Mr. Bertrand Russell, and Mr. Charles Trevelyan and the Buxton family and many other University men.

The next Government which came in after the war was much less radical, because the people had discovered, through the war, that they had been living in a fool's paradise of pacifism: and they turned half round towards the unpopular party, which had forewarned them of the war, and which had now been proved to have possessed in that matter greater knowledge and better judgment. The third, or present, Government of Great Britain has taken a further stride in the same direction, because the war has so confounded and upset all previously popular opinion that popular opinion demands now only strong and stubborn men of affairs, who can organize war and achieve victory: and it does not care—until

the war be over—how unpopular may be or may once have been their opinions on merely domestic questions.

Therefore it is not true to say that this war has been made by thought and thinkers and schools and universities working freely and developing unhindered. This war has been made in Germany by a manufactured thought, made in manufactured Universities, and delivered to a docile people by official thinkers; while in Great Britain it has not been made by the schools or universities at all, if only because those schoolmasters and professors *had* no common thought. They were free thinkers in a free people, as divided and separate in their thoughts almost as in their persons.

But though the schoolmasters and the thinkers have not made this war—in the proper sense—in either country, it is undeniable that the war has reacted, is reacting and will react on education.

In Great Britain it has aroused a cry for a more practical and more scientific education. British education before the war, people feel, was more successful in the formation of character, which indeed formed itself out of causes much deeper than education, than in the organization of science. The character so formed at first bore the test of war admirably: it produced devoted officers and soldiers and staved off ruin and despair by a narrow margin, in the first four dreadful months of pacifism and fool's paradise and unpreparedness. But then trench warfare followed, and it became necessary to beat the Germans not in character only—that was done from the start—but in material science and scientific organization. So then the cry began—however quaintly inconsequent it may sound: "Science has brutalized the Germans; but we can only beat them by being more scientific and more German." And now to-day France and Great Britain are wearing Germany down by her own weapons: by artillery and aviation, and by a more scientific use of their control of the sea, their partial control at any rate: in addition to which, of course, they are still maintaining for neutrals with more or less success the freedom of the seas, in the sense in which those words appeal most to neutrals, that is, security for life at least at sea, so far as the allied fleets can secure it against German submarines. And this helps the Allies to win the war, by giving them at least the sympathy and moral support of all neutrals: and gradually a trifle more: gradually the alliance of former neutrals—

here a neutral and there a neutral: Italy, Roumania, the United States—the last the most welcome ally to us of all the neutrals, because their best men have never been neutral, but have sent their sons to stand in trenches side by side with Canadians and British. But this sympathy, after all, is a minor weapon; the great weapons are artillery and aviation: science and organization and munitions. And naturally, therefore, there has arisen a cry for more scientific education. The great chemists like Sir William Ramsay said at the very beginning of the war that the British Government was criminally ignorant and indifferent to chemistry, to the uses of cotton for explosives in particular; that if the British Government had made cotton contraband at once, the war might have been over by now.

The men of science, that is, are up in arms against an education which produces only statesmen like Mr. Asquith and Sir Edward Grey, men who understand history no doubt, ancient and modern, and human nature also (as no German ever did), and who know how to humor human nature and democracy into good sense, how to flatter it, “jolly” it, lure it, persuade it into new unpopular paths, into the resignation even of its most beloved and most idolized fetishes, even of liberty itself, for the duration of the war; men who can coach it, cajole it, coax it even into conscription, but who do not begin to understand the resources of modern science. The men of science complain that the sort of education which produces only humanists and historians like these, fitted to handle domestic and foreign politics with some success and with honorable scruples, and decent consideration for everyone’s feelings and prejudices, but with excessive patience also and endless delay while they “wait and see,” and see and wait, with no knowledge of the material resources of civilization, is quite out of date in a struggle for life and death, wherein material resources mean everything. We are fighting Germany, they say, and therefore not with kid gloves; we are to beat Germany at her own infernal devices, and therefore, even though this war be in itself a phase of the eternal war of the humanities against materialism, and though we and our Allies represent the humanities, nevertheless we must for the future be more regardful of materialism also than we have been. We must teach more of science and less of the humanities, less character and more efficiency, less wisdom and more knowledge, less individuality and more organization, less culture and more kultur.

If this be so, it would not be surprising if the department of classics, in particular—in spite of the two classical men now in power, Lord Milner and Lord Curzon, and a third man, now deceased, more successful in his time than either, Lord Cromer—were to suffer by this war, were to suffer even more from its ignorance of science than from the cunning, the craft and the general unscrupulousness of its ancient idols and heroes, the Greeks. I suppose it is true that the present-day Greeks—quite apart from science—have damaged the reputation of their language and of all who studied it. (That is hard on Greek, and undeserved, seeing that ancient Greece, at her best, never produced a statesman more reasonable and moderate, nor firmer and more straightforward and candid than Venizelos. It is monstrously unjust that he should have been overshadowed by the meaner and more dishonest section of his countrymen and by an unscrupulous German Dane.)

But so it is, and the classics, it seems likely, may suffer in England and France from the war, because the war hinges so largely on material forces.

Germany, even in defeat, may materialize and commercialize her humaner victors to her own meaner methods and lower aims, and may make materialistic science the chief object of study for Great Britain and for France, as it has been her own chief study.

And this is a reflection disquieting to classical people; but after all, ladies and gentlemen, if you will examine the memorials published in Great Britain from the scientific point of view you will find that among the signatories are a number of very distinguished classical scholars. The signatures of these men, I submit to you, is an unconscious and quite unintended testimonial to the very study they are ostensibly deprecating and depreciating: a study and a subject which leaves those who have taken it so impartial, dispassionate, detached and independent, that they can still take a cool survey of the field of education and recommend another subject for study as superior to their own, can say something, can say much for itself. It has at least produced the one result for which education primarily exists, independent thinking—the readiness to contradict the hobbies of a man's own self and of his own little circle. Some scientific men, by the way, in the same spirit—Sir William Osler is one—have deprecated the extreme claims of science and

have signed the classical memorials. As long as the Universities of Great Britain produce on both sides minds so detached, dispassionate and independent, there is not so much amiss with them, as there would be something amiss, if all their mathematicians believed only in mathematics, and all their classicists only in classics, and all their scientists only in science.

A friend of mine, a mathematician, has ventured the aphorism that science, the conquest of nature, is life's business and man's business in life, while literature is but life's relaxation and man's relaxation in life. I will only offer, in all humility, one comment: that, if this conquest of nature ever becomes again man's only business, yes, or even becomes his chief business in life, there will be no time or heart left for literature or any other relaxation. We shall all be too busy scalping each other. If the first and greater part of life's business, if the prime, practical duty of man be not, as Socrates fondly imagined it was, to know and conquer himself and develop character in such conquest and knowledge, then the whole world will soon be in reality—as Europe is already in the intellectual imagination of some anæmic women—one vast dog-fight. The fighting is there already, it is true, but it is not a dog-fight; or at any rate if it is, it is the fight of a pack of honest watch-dogs—whom Plato conceived to be the noblest works of God—against a tiger and a wolf and two jackals.

These are the fairly definite and positive changes in education which the war is perhaps introducing: better teaching of science and less teaching of the humanities; a more material, a less ethical education; a more practical education, some will say; a less practical, a few others will retort. What, after all, is "practical"? Can anyone here say? But there are other changes in education, wider and less definite, which the war will cause to seem more necessary than ever, if only they be possible. People have been complaining of our examination system ever since I can remember anything. Personally, I think there is something in the complaint, but not what the complainants themselves think and mean. After forty years' experience of examinations, I think they generally succeed in bringing to the top the most thoughtful, the most intellectual, the most quick-witted students, but not always by any means the students who are most effective in life, who can organize, who can influence men, who can get things done.

And that is why people complain so much of examinations. They expect too much and expect something which the old sort of examination never will give them. I will take two illustrations. The examinations for the Indian Civil Service are intended to find Civil servants who can govern Indian districts, who can administer great tracts of country with a few white assistants and a few only; who are to be leaders of men, and governors, not students. But there is nothing in the old sort of examination to bring such men to the front. These literary examinations on books and authors and subjects (classical or scientific) are much more likely to bring to the front some clever writer, who can express himself neatly and interestingly, and write a good article for a newspaper, but who may well be the last man to face a crisis or a mob, or to act as slave-driver and get things done; the last man to shoulder responsibility and impose his will on others and represent the Empire, and act and think imperially. So long as only Englishmen competed in these Civil Service examinations, it did not matter much; for, after all, all the candidates, being Englishmen, were likely to have some force of character, if little acuteness of intellect, and were not likely, in any large number, to be just slipshod Bohemian men of letters, without fixed habits or principles. But when the babu from Bengal came over to compete, the problem became more serious. This sort of student can beat the average Englishman at a literary examination, but he has no force of character, no will or honesty of intention, to back up his superficial gifts. He has none of the prestige of the white man for ruling an Indian district, and no sterling rectitude and determined purpose to compensate for the lack of prestige and courage. He is to his British colleagues what the starvling Greek of the Roman Empire was to the magistrates of Rome, or what a Greek or an Armenian is to-day to a Turk—just a clever fellow, too clever by half, who can not be trusted, and who can be kicked—a man of genius even, perhaps, but without self-respect or the respect of others.

It was very natural then that the late Mr. Rhodes, living in South Africa and seeing the Empire's needs, rebelled against our system of examinations, and introduced for his scholarships a new system, which gives to scholarship and to written examinations only three-tenths of the total of marks allotted, the remaining seven-tenths going to things more vital than intellect, as he thought: to a

combination of the qualities of leadership, athletic prowess, and—what shall I say?—chivalry—championship of the weak—sympathy with the under dog—the characteristic British spirit of fair play—in a word, the British form of Christianity. I suppose every man sees the immense advantage of this new and Rhodian style of measuring candidates, if only—but it is a big if—if only it be really practicable; if only means can be found for gauging leadership and athletic prowess and Christian chivalry anything like as effective as the means for gauging intelligence and scholarship.

But in fact I am afraid the only other thing, besides intelligence and scholarship, easily gauged, is athletic prowess and that is the least important of the three new factors in a Rhodian examination.

There is a second illustration of this same rebellion against the old system of examinations, besides the Rhodes scholarships.

The Colleges in Oxford and Cambridge used to give their fellowships largely as intellectual prizes upon the result of written examinations; but whenever in the last thirty years or so they have wanted in the fellow to be appointed, a colleague, a lecturer, an officer to assist in the conduct of a college, they have very generally dispensed with examinations, and they have appointed the candidate whom they wanted as a man whose character they knew and trusted, and on whom they could count to administer a college and control and influence young men. They have not risked an examination which might bring to the front some ingenious man of letters, whom no one in the College could trust or understand, who would only be an eccentric nonentity or an awful example in the eyes of the British undergraduate; who could never be set up to lecture in a lecture-room to those unsympathetic and unintellectual, but quite practical, youths.

Now the war will deepen and intensify this dissatisfaction with literary examinations, and this new desire to appoint men to office for their qualities of character and will-power rather than for their knowledge or their gifts of expression.

This dissatisfaction with literature and oratory is so widespread. It stares us in the face to-day in politics. This strange war has brought down the mighty from their seat; but it is not only Czars and Kaisers whom it has brought down or threatened: just

as much the old parliamentarians and members of parliament and talkers and journalists. In Russia the war has helped democracy; in Germany no doubt it will in time have the same result, though it was actually launched to stifle and choke off democracy in advance, and perpetuate autocracy. But conversely, in France and Great Britain it has discredited the old leaders of democracy, the orators of Parliament and the organizers of majorities and the old Parliamentary hands. Each nation knows where its own shoe has been pinching, and each has thrown off its old rulers, whether Czars or Premiers. Three Governments have followed one another in Britain, and no one cares, because no one cares about politicians any longer. Every one wants men who can get things done, who have driving power; and if a man combines—like the present Premier—amazing power of persuasion, amazing leadership and magnetism with considerable moral courage, with willingness—above that of other statesmen—to face the two tyrannical and allied forces of Great Britain, the brewers and the trade unions, to stand up to these twin mighty potentates and insist upon concessions from them, why then such a man is irresistible and is made dictator by unanimous consent. And no one laments for the deposed Parliament except its forgotten members and a few journalists, who loved the old sterile round of party controversy and lived for it—the men of the *Nation* and the *Daily News*: Messrs. Massingham and Gardiner. We used, all of us, to scoff at the German Reichstag, and call it a debating society; but since the war we have all recognized that our own Parliament at Westminster was also a debating society, in the sense that it placed an inordinate value on debate, on controversy, on cajolery, or argument, on the manipulation of majorities and the management of parties, and all such useless and deadly lumber—useless and deadly in war time. We used to pride ourselves on settling our political quarrels by ballots instead of by bullets, and we said it so often that at last we took it for granted that political quarrelling was the best and highest life a nation could pursue, and an end in itself.

So, too, in France, governments fall and great orators are driven from office, and no one cares; for it is General Nivelle and not Monsieur Viviani who interests France to-day. So in Italy, the supreme manager of parties, Signor Giolitti, was expelled from office long before the same fate overtook his British counterpart, the

embodiment of all tact and conciliation and intellectual acrobatics, Mr. Asquith.

The war has discredited for the time a literary education, the education which enables a man to shine on the hustings and in debate or in leading articles in party papers and in houses of Parliament. It has brought to the front instead the sort of men who, on this continent, despise politics and never enter them—great manufacturers and organizers of labour, great men of business. The present British Government—at last—after all the scoffs at Members of Parliament, which began with Carlyle and Dickens more than fifty years ago—at last, after fifty years, includes three or four men who have not even a seat in Parliament yet; who have gained their fame and their place by qualities less showy than debate and less literary, less dependent on tongue and pen, deriving more directly from the will. The war has discredited Parliaments and parties—parties even more than Parliaments. Great Britain has rejected for the duration of the war all Party Government. France has done the same, and Italy and Australia. They all have National Governments. And if we have not yet done the same in Canada, no one can quite say why not. The Canadian clubs, even in a city so full of party politics as Toronto, have voted by huge majorities for a non-party Government. Probably nine-tenths of the men and women in this hall would like to see the same thing in Provincial matters no less than in matters Federal; would much rather see Mr. Rowell and Sir William sitting at the same table than artificially opposed to each other by our out-of-date party system—at least for the duration of the war. Then if a number of people not in politics at all at present were added to a national government, instead of party politicians, everybody would rejoice a second time; and if a number of the party politicians disappeared for ever into obscurity—well, they never would be missed.

And the point of all this is that the sort of education which makes a good man of business, and which brings to the front those qualities of character and leadership, which belong to such men, will be the education respected and sought for after the war, while oratory and debate and fluency of speech and gifts of expression and gifts of wire-pulling and electioneering, and the education which gives its honours to these literary qualities, will be at a discount.

But this is a different thing from the other controversy between the classics and science. The world is agreed that it does not want a rhetorical and literary and belletristic education—the sort of education which ruled in Oxford, I think, about seventy years ago, before it was superseded by ancient history and philosophy and the serious study of Greek and Roman thought; but there agreement ceases.

The world will want its examinations and its education after the war so directed as to develop and bring to the front character and leadership of a type more solid than oratory, and less merely literary. But whether that solid character and leadership is better developed by scientific studies or by humanistic studies, by material science or by the history and records of the past, that probably will remain for our children, as it has been for our ancestors, an open question, where there will be as many answers as there are questioners, and where each one will answer the question for himself—with equal conviction and with equal truth—just according to his own temperament and his own personal experience.

FIFTY YEARS OF CONFEDERATION.

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Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—The subject on which it was suggested that I should speak to you to-night, "Fifty Years of Confederation," is one that will be much in our minds in the next few months.

Fifty years is not a long period in the life of a nation. It is but as a day in the life of Britain or of France, or that ancient Empire-Republic of China. But when it is the first fifty years in a nation's life, its celebration takes on something of the importance of the celebration of the first birthday of the first baby in the family.

The fifty years that have just passed have been the fundamental years, the years in which the foundations of the nation were being laid; the years in which the temper and ideals of the new nation were being fashioned; the years in which the destinies of the future were being shaped and moulded.

Perhaps there is no way in which we can more easily realize what the past fifty years have meant for Canada than by a comparison with what the same years have brought to our twin State. Some of you may not have realized that Canada has a twin. History makes strange bed-fellows, and I do not think that it ever made stranger bed-fellows than when it gave the same birthday to the two countries that are facing each other to-night across the Vimy ridge, Canada and Germany.

It was on July 1st, 1867, that the four scattered backwoods Provinces came together to form a Confederation, with no great plaudits or attention from the world. On the same day, with much greater share of pomp and circumstance, much greater share of the world's attention, the North German Confederation was founded. It is true that it was not until four years later that that Confederation was rounded out to its present extent by the addition of Bavaria and the other southern States; just as it is true that it was not until six years later that Canada attained its present extent by the addition of both our easternmost and westernmost Provinces. But from that day the constitution and the character of both the

Empire of Germany and the Dominion of Canada were definitely fixed. In fact, we had a narrow escape from being not merely twins but triplets, for it was in the same momentous year—1867—although a few months later in the year, that the present dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary was formed. You recall that Austria, driven out of the old German Confederation by its successful rival, Prussia, looked eastward, came to terms with Hungary, and formed that curious ramshackle Empire, which at present is in such imminent need and likelihood of dissolution or of radical reshaping.

When we look back on this fact, we are moved, perhaps, to use the words of Bunyan whenever he saw a particularly unholy reprobate staggering by: "There, but for the grace of God, goes John Bunyan." And so we, considering the lot and the fortune of our twin, may have cause for thankfulness, and also for something of heart-searching. We are all familiar with what those fifty years have brought to Germany. We know they have brought her to the pinnacle of national greatness, given her a foremost place in the world's trade, in the world's industry and the world's learning; made her the admiration of the world for her experiments in social organization. At the same time those years have brought her to a fall beyond example in national life. For all that learning, all that industry, all that gift for organization were perverted to serve the ends of a callous militarism and an unbridled autocracy. We had the curious spectacle of a nation with the ideals of the 10th or 12th century, armed with the science and knowledge and the organization of the 20th, somewhat as if the cave man had suddenly reappeared, endowed with the miracles of Twentieth Century science.

Now, what have those fifty years brought to Canada? At first glance we would be inclined to say that our annals were very drab and gray and bare, mere parish annals, compared with the spectacular rise and spectacular fall of this accidental twin of ours. And, perhaps, in one way they are. Yet, I think, when we look a little closer we will find that we, too, have contributed something that is worth the world's attention. It is not enough, of course, from the point of view of what a nation has to do in the world that generations should come and go, that men should be born and marry and die; not enough that we should do our individual tasks with

care and honesty and honor. The question comes: What has the nation done? What have we done in our national task? We are the heirs of all ages. We have been gifted with wonderful opportunities and traditions. And the question is: have we added anything to the common store of mankind, or have we merely received and handed on nothing of our own?

I think we have added our share to the common stock. To take only some of the more outstanding achievements, we can say that these fifty years have meant an experiment in Empire, an experiment in international relations, an experiment in national development and nation building, an experiment in democracy. The experiments are none of them yet concluded. They have not all been successes, but even their failures have something to teach the world.

In the first place, Confederation has been an experiment, has made possible an experiment, in Empire, in imperial relations. When the Federation was formed, public men in Great Britain were almost wholly of the opinion that Confederation was but a stepping-stone to breaking away from the Empire. Few men at that time saw any alternative to complete control of the Empire by Great Britain other than separation of the colonies from the Mother Country. The old idea had been that the Empire existed for the sake of the Mother Country; that the monopoly of its trade was the only purpose of Empire, the only reason why the Mother Country could think it worth while to use its diplomacy and its fleet and its armies and its government to keep control of so many outlying parts of the earth. And when they lost that monopoly of trade, when, under Galt and Macdonald, Canada not only took away the monopoly but took away equality, put up tariff bars against the goods of even Britain itself, many in Britain thought that Empire had ceased to have any excuse for being. And when, a little later, during the Civil War, nearly every statesman and every eminent military man in Britain came to believe that it would be impossible, in case of war, to defend Canada against the United States, which had become, in the four years' struggle, the world's greatest military power, they concluded that Canada, instead of being an asset, was a liability of Empire, a hostage for Britain's good behavior. Yet few of the leading men of Britain were willing to abandon the colonies so long as they were not able to defend themselves. They had

assumed the liabilities of Empire, and they were willing to see it through. They were relieved, men of this way of thinking, when Confederation was proposed, because they thought that this would mean that Canada would hereafter be able to look after herself, and that, without dishonor, Britain might let her go her own way. It is sometimes said that that way of thinking in England was limited to Cobden and Bright and men of the Manchester school. Anyone who has taken the trouble to get any first-hand acquaintance with the opinion of the public men and press of England at the time of Confederation and several years afterwards, knows that this is not a fact, knows that in few important quarters in England was there any other feeling than that Confederation was just a stepping-stone to independence. It was a feeling that was common not only among Radicals, especially of the Manchester school, for the Radicals of the John Stuart Mill school, it should be noted, were among the few who were confident that the **Empire would hold together**. It was a feeling shared by Liberals like Gladstone and Lord Granville, by Conservatives like Disraeli and Lowe and Lord Derby. You are all familiar, for example, with Disraeli's famous petulant phrase, in 1854, that the colonies were "wretched millstones about our necks." But it is, perhaps, not as well known that in the very year that the British North America Act was framed, Disraeli, who was an Imperialist then and an Imperialist afterwards, but an Imperialist in a different sense than that in which we use the term to-day—a peculiarly Oriental sense—Disraeli, writing at that time to Lord Derby, declared "Power and influence we must have in Asia, therefore in Eastern Europe; therefore in Western Europe; but what is the use of these wretched deadweights of colonies, which we do not govern?" That, then, was the typical opinion of the time.

The fifty years of Confederation has shown that that expectation was unwarranted. They have shown that it has been possible to reconcile the ideas of nationality and of Empire. In that achievement Canada, I think, has played the foremost part—a part, the greatness of which is not usually recognized even in Canada itself. It was not always a conscious part. Our statesmen, our people, did not always see clearly the theory of Empire, the goal, before them. But instinctively in some cases, consciously in other cases, they developed that theory and practice of Empire which to-day holds good.

They insisted, in the first place, that we should advance steadily toward self-government. They insisted on taking over new powers, on shouldering new responsibilities, until at the present time the old theory that the Empire was a realm to be governed by the Parliament of the United Kingdom, has been relegated to the scrap heap of history, so far as the white dominions are concerned. But they were not content to assert their right to govern themselves.

Step by step, with this development, this assertion of self-government, the dominions, and Canada particularly, insisted on shouldering new responsibilities, working toward an ideal of co-operation between the different parts. Gradually, through High Commissionerships, Imperial Conferences and other organs of communication, ways were found by which the different parts of the Empire, while governing themselves in the affairs that were of chief interest to themselves, came together to talk over, to co-operate, to act together, in matters of common interest.

That is a conception of Empire that has been worked out in the fifty years that have passed, and in which Canadian statesmen played no small part. I think, when the history of Empire comes to be written, it will be found that Baldwin, La Fontaine, Macdonald and Tupper, Howe and Blake, Laurier and Borden have played a greater part in working out this theory of Empire than the statesmen even of the Mother Country or of the sister dominions. It is a conception of Empire that has no parallel or precedent in the world. It is a conception that our Prussian twin could not understand in a thousand years. It is a conception that has been tried in the furnace, that has been proved and vindicated beyond all doubt in the present mighty struggle, and it is a conception of Empire that I think will not soon pass away.

Again, Confederation has meant an experiment in international relations. It is sometimes said that Canada has no voice in foreign affairs. There is a sense in which it is very far from being true. We have had a voice, and, of late years, the chief voice, in those foreign affairs which may not always be ultimately of greatest concern to us, but which are of most immediate and direct concern, our relations with the United States.

One spur to Confederation was the fear that war might come with the United States, and that the scattered Provinces would fall victims to that mighty power, which had just built up a tremendous disciplined army in the struggle with the Southern States. To-day Canada and the United States are on the verge of fighting side by side against a common foe.

That, however, is not the contrast, the achievement, of which I wish to speak. It is more the conduct of the relations between these two countries which, as I said, are essentially a phase of foreign affairs. To-day, between these two countries, for 3,000 miles not a single cannon, not a single trench, not a single barbed-wire entanglement is found. Nowhere in the world, along no other boundary line in the world, would you find such a condition of affairs. Intercourse is free, criticism is often outspoken, but it is criticism of people who understand each other. No two neighboring countries in the world have carried on their international affairs in so sane and civilized a way as Canada and the United States have done in the past fifty years. I do not mean to say that we have been perfect. Very far from it. We have had our squabbles; we have both shown bad temper in our fishery dispute and boundary dispute, and probably will do so again. Nor do I mean to say that we deserve all the credit for this state of affairs. It is not because there is any special gift of common sense bestowed upon the natives of North America that we have achieved this civilized international relationship. Much of the credit must go to Great Britain for the way in which her statesmen steadfastly, sometimes with a good deal of criticism from us, kept in view the goal of Anglo-American friendship, and to the power of the British nation on the seas, which made it worth while to have the friendship of that power. Again, much of the credit is due to the fact that these two nations speak the same tongue. The barrier of alien speech does not raise difficulties between our two countries, as it does between so many countries in war-torn Europe. The fact, too, that each of the nations that divide this continent has ample elbow-room, that it is not cramped and crowded and overpopulated and forced to look, or to think that it is forced to look, beyond its border for room for the energy of its sons. This fact has had a great deal to do with the ease of keeping on good terms with each other. Yet, when all allowances and qualifications are made, I do think that we can honestly—the United

States and ourselves—take some credit to our statesmen, to our press, to our public, for attaining this attitude, this sane view of international relations which we hope will not long be singular and isolated in the world.

During the last few months, when so much attention was being given in Canada to the policy of the United States, when many people felt, rightly or wrongly, that those in charge of the destinies of that great people were not living up to its best ideals and opportunities, it is very creditable how little expression of this criticism there was in our press. Very few outbursts of petulance or words of criticism found expressioin, and we have our reward to-day.

Again, Confederation has meant an experiment in national development, in national unity. Here we, with three million people, found ourselves at Confederation with half a continent to stake out, to develop. I do not know that a young people ever had such a task put before them before, such an opportunity. We had the courage to attempt it. Our statesmen did not hesitate to offer to throw a transeontinental railway across the continent as the condition of bringing in the farthest province by the sea. They held to their determination to make Canada one even in the dark days when settlers were few and far between, and depression weighed on all the industries of the country.

In many ways Canada is a very hard country to unite. It was comparatively easy to write "Canada" on the map, to paint the whole northern part of North America red, but it was a very much harder thing to write Canada on the hearts and minds of all the men and women and children spread across this vast continent. It has been a very difficult task to unite Canada. "Canada is a hard country to govern," said Sir John Macdonald, and no one knew better. The physical difficulties in the way are astounding. On the map Canada appears to be a vast territory, some three or four thousand miles from east to west, some two or three thousand miles from south to north. Yet you may recall the jibe that Christopher Dunkin, that ablest opponent of Confederation, made when someone said to him, referring to the old parable of the faggot of sticks: "Bind the British North American provinces together, and they could not be broken." "A faggot of sticks!" Dunkin exclaimed, "you mean a string of fishing rods tied by the ends." There was

just enough of truth in that rhetorical jibe to hurt. While on the map we seem to be 2,000 miles from north to south, as a matter of fact, if you look at an atlas that shows the populated parts of Canada, Canada will appear a stretch of territory 4,000 miles wide by, on the average, not more than 100 miles from north to south, sometimes exceeding that and sometimes less. And when you think, too, that this narrow stretch, which every year fortunately is being widened and broadened, when you think that this was broken in the middle by that 800 or 1,000 miles of Laurentian wilderness—what we used to consider wilderness—that juts down between Hudson Bay and Lake Superior—when you contrast that state of affairs with the lot of the United States, where there is no physical barrier between east and west and north and south, and where settlement is continuous and intercourse unhampered, then you realize somewhat of the physical difficulties that the unification of Canada involved. And when we think, too, of the difficulties in the way of difference of race and speech and creed that faced the fathers of Confederation and those who took up the task after them; when we consider that Canada was divided between two great nationalities, one of them the descendants of the people who had first planted civilization on these shores, the other the descendants of that country who had long been hereditary foes of France, we can realize something of the difficulties that faced our statesmen.

The difficulties have lately been intensified, been diversified, perhaps. Into our west and into our great cities there have poured swarms of immigrants beyond anything that any nation ever saw, in proportion to its population. In those three or four years when our immigration was at its height, we were getting twenty times as many immigrants in proportion to the people already here as the United States was receiving. As you know, there are more Jews in Montreal than in Jerusalem, and three times as many Austro-Hungarians as Indians in the west.

These are simply indications of the difficulties that Canada has had to face in the way of national unity. We have tried to face it in many ways. We have tried to bind east and west together by building railways, and sometimes that national aim was the only aim that would warrant and excuse many of our railway projects. We have tried to bind them together by the efforts of our teachers,

the efforts of our churches, the efforts of our chartered banks, the efforts of our political parties, and in a great measure we have succeeded.

Perhaps there is nothing that binds a nation so much together as the memory of common sacrifices and common glories. I have heard Principal Gordon speak of the way in which the common memories, the common thrill, at the time of the Riel Rebellion first made Maritime Province men realize that they were part of the Dominion. If that was so in that case, what will be the effect of the memories and the traditions of the glories and the sadness that we share in common, east and west and north and south, in connection with the present mighty struggle! It may be, then, that our twin state builded better than it knew, and may have done as much to unite Canada, as it has done to tear its own people apart.

Yet we have not altogether succeeded. We have not welded Canada together outwardly. We have not succeeded, perhaps, in some phases of material development as well as our friends the Germans would have done. We have not shown the same forethought and the same capacity for organization as they would have shown. And yet, while there are failures to record, while there are still embers of passion between different sections and different races which will easily start to flame; while there are still many undigested patches of Europe on our western plains that will require careful attention; still those who know the country best speak to us optimistically of the progress towards national unity. We have every reason not to be satisfied, not to be self-satisfied, but to have hope and confidence, reason to believe that the next fifty years will complete what the first fifty have carried so far toward achievement, and that national unity will grow with every year that the Dominion has to face.

A factor in this endeavor to secure national unity has been our experiment in federalism. One reason why we have managed to secure such measure of success as we have attained in bringing the nation together and in making all the different parts of the country share a common Canadian sentiment, has been that we have left a great deal of local independence to the several parts of the country. We, perhaps, do not realize how comparatively rare the federal experiment was at the time when Canada decided to embark upon it.

Outside of Switzerland and the United States and the shadowy federalism of some Latin-American countries, there were no federal countries in existence at the time when the Canadian Confederation came into being. We have blazed out several new paths. We have not always been successful in them. Our system of provincial subsidies, our system of Federal veto, are questionable successes. But, on the whole, we have contributed new phases, new achievements, through our experiment in federalism. We can safely say that we owe much of whatever success we have attained in securing national unity to this fact, that through the federal system we were able to allow the different localities which had different industrial, different racial, different religious interests, it might be, as much as possible to look after their own affairs, while in the common federal Parliament we found a place to bring all together on a common platform.

Again, we may say that Confederation has been an experiment in democracy. Here, perhaps, the contrast with our accidental twin is greatest. None of us, I think, would care to say that that experiment has been entirely successful. It has been marred by much inefficiency, much muddling and lack of foresight, much graft and corruption, which often has shamed us to the core. Yet it has had its great achievements. There have been men, there have been movements in our political annals of the past fifty years, which make us proud of Canada and make us proud of democracy. I do not think that we need blush when we make a comparison with other countries except, perhaps, the mother country, which went through its period of sowing the wild oats of democracy a little earlier than we did, and, least of all, when we compare ourselves with the country, the Empire, which came into existence on our natal day. We sometimes are inclined to think that we have the worst politicians on earth, judging, at least, by what each of us says of the politicians of the opposite stripe. It is probably true that every country gets the politicians it deserves, in the long run, sometimes a little better than we deserve, sometimes a little worse, but in the long run pretty much what we deserve. And on the whole—I am not referring particularly to present company—we ought to be thankful that we have fared so well as we have. We have been like the men of other new countries, often too pre-occupied with our individual affairs to give the attention to public affairs that we

should have given. And politics in the past fifty years have become a much more serious business than they used to be. They involve a much greater strain on the time of men and leaders than they used to involve.

One respect in which there has been great improvement is in the lessened bitterness of political relations. I have recently been reading the files of party papers of the late fifties and early sixties, and out of a single issue I think you could decoct more gall and bitterness than you would find in the average party journal of to-day in a month. Perhaps we are not quite as partisan even, though the improvement in this respect has not been quite as marked.

Another change in our political situation, to which I have already referred, is the fact that politics at the present time involve a much greater strain, a much greater sacrifice of the time and energy of political leaders than was true when Confederation was formed.

It is striking when you look over the last Parliaments of the Province of Canada and early Parliaments of the Dominion, to what an extent the benches were filled by men who were active in business, at the same time they were taking an active part in politics. Sessions were shorter; organization was less exacting; the country was smaller; there were fewer demands upon the politician's time. It was possible for a man to take a part in politics without sacrificing what he has to sacrifice to-day. And that is a fact that we should remember when we are led to criticise our politicians and to criticise the men who have not gone into politics. We ought to remember the sacrifice that politics entails, and to remember that in all fairness each one of us of the rank and file ought to do more than was necessary in the older days.

We have not altogether succeeded in this experiment of democracy. And yet I think when we compare it with the experiments in government of the lands overseas, even from the point of view of efficiency, not in a short term but in a long term view, even from the point of view of corruption—because if we have more individual we have less class graft than some of the European states—if we consider particularly the extent to which democracy

has made possible the education of the people, we again have reason, not for being content, but for being heartened to go on to a greater future.

These, then, are some of the broader paths in which we have scored an achievement. We have done our part in working out a unique conception of Imperial relations, in working out a new view and practice of international relations. We have contributed our share to the industrial development and to the nation building of the world. We have done a little, and we hope to do more, in the way of proving democracy to be a fit instrument and system for a modern people. We have reason, when we look back over this achievement, to take heart and to take fresh resolve to do our part to make the Canada of the future a nobler country. We have reason not to thank God that we are not as our twin state, but to be thankful that our temptations were fewer, to be thankful that we had better traditions and ampler chance, and to determine that we shall, in the future, use to the fullest advantage that we can the great opportunities and the great task that has been set before us.

THE DOMINIONS AND THE WAR.

N. W. R. OWELL, K.C., M.P.P.

According to a distinguished Japanese naval officer, the two great revelations of this war are the marvellous spirit of France—the courage, self-sacrifice and whole-hearted devotion of the French people in the cause of liberty; and the spontaneous co-operation of the Dominions of our Empire in this great conflict.

It may be that we are living too close to the actual events of the hour to appreciate the real significance of what is now taking place; but the men of the East, wise men of the East, looking out upon the whole world situation, perceive in the response of the Dominions to this great appeal, and their participation in this struggle, one of the most inspiring scenes in modern history. It is a notice to all nations that the new powers which have arisen in the East, in the South and in the West, owing allegiance to the same Sovereign, recognize their partnership with the mother country, and say to the world that when the cause of liberty is at stake and the interests of the Empire are vitally concerned, we stand together, mother and daughter nations. This has a very deep significance for the world, not only for the present, but for the days that lie before us. Germany counted on the disintegration of our Empire; Humanity rejoices in its unity.

While the Dominions are at war because they are part of the British Empire, they are taking part in the war by the free and spontaneous action of their own parliaments. As free nations they have joined in waging a defensive war on behalf of democracy and human liberty against the most powerful and ruthless military autocracy in the world. This war is now just as much their war as it is that of Britain, Belgium, France or Russia. The Dominions must accept all the responsibilities and consequences of their position as belligerent powers and organize their man power and resources so as to throw their whole strength into the struggle. They must do this to preserve their own national future and help save democracy and civilization.

What has been the direct contribution of the Dominions to the allied cause, and how have the troops of the Dominions acquitted themselves? It was my privilege last summer to see something of these troops and their work.

SOUTH AFRICA.

I saw no finer looking body of men than the veteran troops from South Africa. Practically every man had seen service in German Southwest Africa, and after the conquest of that country had enlisted for service in Europe. What a magnificent tribute it is to British institutions, to our ideals of freedom and self-government, that the men who, scarce more than fifteen years ago, were fighting in a life and death struggle for supremacy, are now fighting side by side on the continent of Europe, in defence of the flag and for the preservation of the liberties, the free institutions and the integrity of our Empire. I do not believe you will find in all history a more magnificent demonstration of the readiness of democracy to respond to liberty than we have in South Africa in this struggle. Never did the British people display greater faith in democracy and in the principles of freedom and self-government, than when they granted self-government to South Africa, and never did faith receive a richer reward!

When the war broke out, the Government of General Botha was faced with a Nationalist movement which did not content itself with protesting against the Government participating in the war, but carried its protest to the extent of armed rebellion. General Botha, with undaunted courage, and with a resolution and ability which do infinite credit to one of the greatest men of our Empire, speedily crushed the rebellion, carried the war into German Southwest Africa, which had inspired the rebellion, and in the space of a few months added to the British Empire a territory larger than Germany itself. Then, turning to German Southeast Africa, the citizen soldiers of South Africa, aided by some troops from Great Britain, all under the command of General Smuts, have practically conquered that great German colony, and in a short time it will be added to the South African Dominion. They raised thousands of men in South Africa to achieve those objectives, and, in addition, they have now sent men across the sea, who, on the fields of France and Flanders, are fighting with the other soldiers of the Empire in the defence of the liberties of Europe and of the world.

South Africa, according to the census of 1911, had a European population of 1,275,000. Her total enlistments for her expeditionary forces—that is, for actual participation in the war—number approximately 70,000. She has had over 60,000 engaged in actual

service either in German Southwest Africa, German Southeast Africa, or in Europe. She has already expended in the war \$130,000,000, and her average daily war expenditure at the present time is approximately \$60,000. When you consider that all this has been done by a people with a total European population of only a little over a million and a quarter, say half Briton and half Boer, perhaps more Boers than Britons, who some fifteen years ago were warring against each other, I am sure every citizen of Canada feels that we should pay a tribute to the courage, the fidelity and the unselfish service of the men of the South African Dominion, and particularly to that great man, General Botha, who has led the country in this struggle.

AUSTRALIA.

The Australians have a magnificent record in this war. We all know the courage and sacrifice of the gallant Anzac troops in the Gallipoli campaign; the months of patient and heroic service in an almost impossible position under the incessant fire of the Turks, with the greatest difficulty in getting supplies or even water to drink, with sanitary conditions worse than any other section of our line, unless in Mesopotamia; without grumbling or protest they fought on week after week, month after month, until the order came to withdraw. And then, without complaint or reproach, they withdrew and took their places in other sections of the line, where they have fought with the same courage and heroism and with glorious success.

The Australian soldiers are somewhat taller and more wiry in appearance than our Canadians. They wear a distinctive hat—a soft felt—a distinguishing mark wherever they go. The New Zealand troops also wear a somewhat similar hat. You always know an Anzac wherever you see him. Australia had an estimated population, in 1914, of 4,900,000. She had enlisted for her expeditionary force up to the 1st of February, 1917, approximately 350,000 men. She had despatched overseas up to the same date approximately 300,000. It takes a ship about four times as long to make the return trip between Australia and Great Britain as it does between Canada and Great Britain. Australia is, therefore, deserving of very special credit for having sent so large a percentage of her enlisted men overseas. When I was at the front, Australia was maintaining five divisions—four in France and one in Egypt.

Australia's war expenditure, up to the 1st day of February of this year—the actual expenditure for the fiscal years of 1915 and 1916, and the estimated expenditure for the portion of the fiscal year 1917—was \$500,000,000. Her present average daily war expenditure is \$1,150,000. This is a great contribution of men and money for a nation of less than 5,000,000 people.

NEW ZEALAND.

New Zealand, with an estimated population, in 1914, of 1,100,000, had enlisted up to the same period approximately 75,000. She has sent overseas approximately 65,000, and is maintaining one division at the front. New Zealand's total war expenditure up to the 1st of February of the present year is estimated at \$112,000,000, and her present estimated daily war expenditure is \$200,000.

The New Zealand troops are not so tall as the Australians. They look more like our Canadians. One could not wish to look upon a finer body of men than the New Zealand troops. As part of the Anzac corps they have shared with Australians all the hardships and triumphs of Gallipoli, Egypt and the Somme.

It is said the Anzacs are in many respects very like the Canadians. They are not quite so amenable to discipline as are the regular troops of the British army. In fact, they give the Australians credit for being a little harder to discipline than our Canadian troops, and they tell some very interesting stories of discipline in the Australian army. I am told it is sometimes difficult to get an Australian private, who has occupied a position in the homeland superior to his officer, to salute him always with the deference that is expected from every private in the British army. But, whether this be true or not, when it comes to actual fighting, the troops from Australia and New Zealand have shown dash and enthusiasm, and have achieved such successes, that they have immortalized the name Anzac and given to Australia and New Zealand a new place in the world.

(The Governments of Australia, New Zealand and South Africa do not publish the official figures of enlistments or of the numbers sent overseas, and one has to secure the best available information from these countries, but I believe the figures I have given are approximately correct and can be relied on.)

NEWFOUNDLAND.

Newfoundland, the smallest and oldest of Britain's overseas dominions, has also played a worthy part in the conflict. With an estimated population of 250,000, she has enlisted for overseas service in the army, up to the 1st of February, 1917, 3,300. She had actually sent overseas, at that date, 3,100. Newfoundland maintains one battalion at the front that has a record of which its people may be justly proud. She has undertaken to provide monthly reinforcements of 150 men for this battalion, but her main contribution in men has been to the Imperial Naval Service.

INDIA.

While India is not a self-governing Dominion, yet she occupies such an important place in the Empire and has made such a noble contribution, both in men and money, to the Empire's cause, we should pause to pay a tribute to her and to her loyal and devoted sons who have shed their blood in the cause of liberty. India has won for herself a new place in our Empire, and her voice must be heard in the councils of the Empire. I wish I could give you the figures of her enlistments and expenditures, but I have been disappointed in securing the most recent information.

CANADA.

Coming to our own country—Canada—we had an estimated population in 1914 of approximately 8,000,000. Up to the first of February, 1917, we had enlisted in our expeditionary forces for overseas service 391,600 men. We had sent overseas up to that date 284,400. You will see our enlistments exceed those of Australia, but the number actually despatched overseas is slightly less than Australia. You may be interested in knowing the figures for Canada up to date. We had actually enlisted, up to the 1st of April in our expeditionary forces, 407,300, and we had actually despatched overseas, up to the same date, 298,140. Our enlistments exceed those who have gone overseas by approximately 110,000. We should not, however, understand that we have 110,000 men in Canada, or anything like this number. Our figures of enlistments include all who have been discharged in Canada since enlistment because of physical unfitness, or who have deserted, or who have been released from service for any cause. We should have to reduce our figures.

probably by over 70,000, in order to get at the enlistment of those in Canada actually available for effective service overseas.

We now maintain four divisions at the front, and it has been suggested in the press that we are likely to send over a fifth, which is now in training in England. We will certainly have to provide some better method of securing reinforcements than that now being adopted, or we shall be unable to maintain another division in the firing-line; in fact, unless we receive reinforcements much more rapidly than we are securing them to-day, we shall not be able to maintain four divisions in the firing-line. This situation the people of Canada must frankly face, and it is imperative we should face it without delay.

Nowhere did I find greater appreciation of our Canadian troops than among their Anzac comrades-in-arms. Both Australian and New Zealand officers told me that when they were in Egypt completing their training they read the story of the stand of the Canadians at St. Julien, in the second battle of Ypres, and how, by their valor, they had saved the day, and they said to themselves: "When we go into battle we must equal the Canadians." Our Canadians at St. Julien set the standard for the troops of the oversea Dominions, and how magnificently they have all measured up to it!

Canada's expenditure on the war, up to February 1st, 1917, was approximately \$500,000,000—almost exactly the same as that of Australia. Our war expenditure at the present time is estimated at \$1,000,000 per day. We have nearly 300,000 workers engaged in the manufacture of munitions for the Imperial Government, in 630 factories, in the different provinces of Canada. The value of munitions actually shipped, up to the present time, is approximately over \$400,000,000. This whole industry has been developed since the war broke out. Canada also has loaned the Imperial Treasury \$200,000,000 to assist in financing the munition business in Canada.

Of the valor and achievements of our own troops I have spoken on so many occasions since my return from Europe, that I shall not dwell upon the subject to-night, except to say that from soldiers and civilians alike, both in Great Britain and France, I heard the most unqualified words of appreciation. All these comments might be summed up in the words of Mr. Asquith—"No soldiers have fought better, none could have fought better." Their great appeal to us is to send more men, not to relieve them so that they may return home,

but to take their places when they fall in the fight, and to carry the flag on to victory. As a grateful people we pay our tribute to-night to our gallant Canadian troops.

In addition to the forces which I have given you, Australia has her own navy, which, on the 30th April, 1915, numbered in its service 9,423, including reserves. New Zealand also has made her contribution to the navy, and Canada had enlisted in the Canadian Naval Service, up to January, 1917, 3,310 men.

These contributions, both in men and money, from the different portions of the Empire, represent an effort on the part of the Dominions which, five years ago, would have been considered impossible. While we should do more, it is but right that we should recognize that we have done vastly more than would have been thought feasible by anyone in any portion of the Empire a few years ago. But in this respect we do not differ from any other country at war. For every one of these countries has put forth efforts in this struggle which, before the war, would have been thought impossible. Every nation has been compelled, in the intensity of the struggle, to excel itself.

In order that you may have the matter before you in more concrete form, let me recapitulate what I have already stated:

WAR CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE DOMINIONS.

Dominions	Estimated Population, 1914 (Exclusive of native races)	Total Enlistments For Exped'y. Forces up to Feb. 1st, 1917.
Canada	8,000,000	391,600
Australia	4,900,000	350,000
New Zealand	1,100,000	75,000
South Africa	1,275,000 (1911)	70,000
Newfoundland	250,000	3,300

Dominions	Total Exped'y. Forces Dispatched up to February 1st, 1917.	Troops in Battle-Line
Canada	284,000	4 Divisions
Australia	300,000	5 Divisions
New Zealand.....	60,000	1 Division
South Africa.....	60,000	1 Brigade in Europe, balance in Africa
Newfoundland	3,100	1 Battalion

Dominions	Total War Expenditure to February 1st, 1917.	Present Average Daily War Expenditure.
Canada	\$500,000,000	\$1,000,000
Australia	500,000,000	1,150,000
New Zealand	112,000,000	200,000
South Africa	130,000,000	60,000

GOVERNMENTAL CHANGES.

When the war broke out, a Liberal Government was in power in Australia, but the Labor party held a majority in the Senate. A difference arose between the Government and the Senate, with the result that a new election was held and the Labor party was returned to power. They immediately formed a War Committee, composed of an equal number of men from each party, and all important proposals in connection with the war were submitted to this committee for its advice. This situation continued until after the referendum on conscription, which resulted in the defeat of the measure and the secession from Mr. Hughes, the Prime Minister and leader of the Labor party, of a substantial section of his supporters. Mr. Hughes and the leader of the Liberal party have now formed a Coalition Government; and they now have a National or War Government in Australia, composed of Liberal and Labor members, opposed by that section of the Labor party which repudiated Mr. Hughes' leadership.

Australia had put into the field five divisions. In order to maintain that force in the field, they required, according to the estimates prepared by the military authorities, reinforcements of 16,500 men per month. Notwithstanding the magnificent response made by the people of Australia under the voluntary system, supplemented as it was by a compulsory registration, the Prime Minister, Mr. Hughes, reached the conclusion that they could not maintain a continuous stream of reinforcements at the rate of 16,500 per month, without conscription. His Government was divided on the issue, but they agreed in submitting the matter to the vote of the people. The vote was against conscription, and Australia is still continuing to raise her reinforcements by voluntary enlistment, based upon compulsory registration. It may be that she will not be able to keep up the reinforcements on a scale adequate to maintain her existing divisions at the front. If this should happen, she must

either withdraw some of her divisions or devise some other method of securing reinforcements. Voluntary enlistment has been greatly aided by their compulsory national registration, and from the lists of men of military age thus compiled they have by direct governmental appeal and by efficient organization secured their reinforcements.

Australia and New Zealand, as you know, are very democratic countries. We sometimes call the government of Australia socialistic; but most governments during this war have gone further in exercising governmental power and authority in the management of commercial and industrial affairs in the interests of the whole people than they have ever done before. They all have gone very much further than has our government in Canada.

The government of Australia last year purchased all the wheat grown in Australia. They have undertaken to purchase all the wheat grown this year. They have purchased and are operating a fleet of merchant ships to market their products. They expelled all German mining interests from Australia, and took control of their mining properties. The Government has taken over the management of many important enterprises in Australia, and has exercised a very direct influence in controlling the affairs of the country during this war period.

The New Zealand Government has to some extent followed the same course. They had an election in the early part of 1915, which resulted in the parties being about evenly divided in the House. They then formed a War Government, composed of the leading men of both parties, and this Government is now aggressively carrying on the war. They have had compulsory national registration, and they have now adopted conscription, and are raising at the present time their necessary reinforcements by draft. They have also taken action in connection with the food supplies of the people, and the Government has otherwise intervened in the management and control of the nation's activities so as to ensure the most effective prosecution of the war, and at the same time conserve the country's interests at home. New Zealand is very prosperous at the present time by reason of her great production of meat, wool and dairy products and the high war prices at present prevailing.

The South African Party, led by General Botha, was in power in

South Africa when the war broke out. Prior to the war, General Hertzog left the government of General Botha on account of differences of opinion on the relations of South Africa to the Empire. Hertzog formed a Nationalist group, and in the general election of 1915 the Nationalists secured a large number of seats in the House. General Botha does not now command a majority of the House, but carries on the government by the co-operation and support of Sir Thomas Smart and the members of the Unionist Party. The South African and Unionist parties are working together in order that South Africa may do her part in this war.

Canada is one of the very few countries at war which so far has not made any very radical changes in its Government.

FRANCE.

I found in France the greatest gratitude for the part Canada is taking in this struggle. Man after man said, "It is wonderful, it is wonderful, what the Canadians have done." France looks upon Canada with the warm affection of a parent for a child, and Canada's contribution has deeply touched her heart. France has poured out her own life's blood with unstinted hand that France and liberty may live, and she is as generous in her appreciation of the contributions of our Dominions as she is in her own sacrifices. She naturally looks with peculiar affection and gratitude on the service of the French-Canadians at the front; and no battalion in the Canadian forces has a finer record than the gallant 22nd, which has written such a glorious page in our history.

THE UNITED KINGDOM.

I have spoken thus far of the part of the Dominions in this war, but I cannot close without saying something of the wonderful achievements of the Mother Country in this titanic struggle. She certainly has achieved the impossible. This is true in the number of men she has enlisted, in the output of her guns and munitions, in the work of her army and navy, in her ocean transport, and in her financial contributions. With a population of approximately 46,000,000, she has already enlisted over 5,000,000 for her army and navy, and she is now calling for 500,000 more before the 1st July next. She has not only largely to provide her own supply of guns and munitions, but she is making most important contributions of guns and munitions to her allies. She is providing coal and large

quantities of steel for France and Italy. She is munitioning and financing both Belgium and Serbia. She is sending great quantities of war supplies to Russia. She is bearing her own unprecedented war obligations, and is at the same time guaranteeing and providing the money to pay for the supplies purchased on this continent for her allies—Russia, France and Italy. She is bearing the financial burden of the war, and providing transport services, not only for herself, but largely for her allies as well. Were it not for the burden which Great Britain has assumed, and which she is cheerfully and uncomplainingly carrying, the war would have long since ended in irretrievable disaster. It is because of the burden Great Britain is carrying, because of the efforts she is putting forth, that it is possible for us, if we continue to do our duty to the end, to look forward with confidence to the future and to victory at the close of this terrific struggle.

THE DOMINIONS AND THE MOTHERLAND.

Mr. Asquith, former Prime Minister of Great Britain, said to me that Great Britain could not have achieved what she has in this struggle but for the encouragement and support she received from the Dominions overseas. The spontaneous co-operation of the Dominions, their generous offers of men, supplies and money, have stirred the heart of the Motherland as it has never been stirred before. The action of the Dominions has quickened enthusiasm, stimulated energy and strengthened the will of the people of Great Britain, so that they have put forth efforts and achieved results which seem little short of miraculous. This has not been due wholly to the actual contributions we have made, but in no small measure to the moral effect of the contributions. It has been an inspiration to the people of Great Britain to know that the free Dominions of the Empire, without any compulsion, without even an appeal, have such a deep love and affection for the Motherland and for the cause of liberty for which she is fighting, and such a resolute determination to preserve free government and democratic institutions against the menace of Prussian militarism, that they would stake their whole future on the common cause and co-operate, to the measure of their ability, to secure victory.

It has been well pointed out this evening that we have builded in Canada more wisely than we knew. In the great work of Confed-

eration we paved the way for the confederation of the Australian colonies, and later for the union of the South African colonies. It is because we have Canadian, Australian and South African confederations, strong and resourceful new nations, that the Dominions have been able to make so great a contribution in this struggle. If victory, and decisive victory, is achieved, one of the determining factors undoubtedly will be the participation of the Dominions in the war.

The war will have a great effect upon Canada itself, as well as upon all the other Dominions. From the East, from the West, and from the Centre, the common service of the men of Canada—fighting side by side in the same battalions, nursed back to life and health in the same hospitals—should form a bond of union which will bind together our Provinces as they have never been bound before, and the common service and sacrifice of the men of the Overseas Dominions with the men of the Motherland should bind together the free nations of our Empire as never before.

While we shall maintain our autonomy and our self-government, our right to manage our own affairs, the men of Canada who have fought shoulder to shoulder with the men of Newfoundland, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, and of England, Ireland and Scotland, will come back to us with a broader view of what our Empire stands for, with a new sense of its essential unity, and with the resolute determination to maintain that unity throughout all the days that lie before us.

They will undoubtedly ask and receive a larger voice in shaping the future of Canada within the Empire than Canada has hitherto enjoyed.

In this war the Dominions have swung out into the full current of the world's life, and whether we welcome the prospect or regret it, we can never swing back again. May our voice ever be heard in the councils of the Empire and among the nations, for liberty, justice and honorable peace.

VIMY RIDGE.

We have been greatly heartened by the news which has come to us during the past two days. Some thought, when the report first reached us of what our Canadians had achieved at the second battle of Ypres, that possibly the mother country, its statesmen and mili-

tary leaders, out of the goodness of their hearts, and because of their appreciation of Canada's effort, had praised the service and courage of our troops at least up to the full measure of their desserts. I wish to say to you that, when across the sea this past summer, I learned from British statesmen and British officers, from French statesmen and French officers, of the valor and achievements of our troops in the second battle of Ypres. From one and all I heard exactly the same story—the most unqualified praise of the service they had rendered. I do not believe one word too much has been said of what our Canadians accomplished on that great occasion. Now they have shown in the capture of Vimy Ridge—the vital point in the German system of defence, which had resisted capture by the finest troops of France for months—that the sons of Canada, from our farms, from our offices and from our factories, unaccustomed to war and to bearing arms, accustomed only to the ways of peace, for the love of home, of Canada and freedom, defeated the finest troops of Germany and won the day once more for the Allies and for liberty. Our men at the front have made a new place for Canada in the Empire and among the nations of the world.

Canada is now passing through one of the most critical and yet one of the most inspiring hours of her history. She threw herself into this struggle for human liberty with unanimity and enthusiasm which stirred Britain, France and America. Her sons have won for Canada imperishable glory on the battlefields of Europe, but the cause of liberty is not yet secure. Further efforts and further sacrifices are urgently needed. If we are to preserve our children and our children's children from a repetition of the horrible crimes and bloodshed of the past three years, Prussian militarism must be decisively defeated and liberty and democracy guaranteed for the future.

It may be that in the intensity of the struggle the contributions which the Dominions of the Empire can make to the Allied cause may prove the decisive factor. We may strike a blow at this time for liberty and humanity which will resound around the world. If we have the ability and fail to use it, we must accept responsibility for the disaster which may follow. If we have the ability and use it, future generations will bless the men and women of this day for the noble service they have rendered.

The call comes to every Canadian, no matter what his racial

origin, to be worthy of Canada, the cause of liberty and the gallant men who have gone across the sea to fight for us. Our men at the front have proven themselves equal to all the tasks imposed upon them. The question which faces us is, will we prove equal to the tasks which face us at this critical hour—the tasks of organizing the whole nation for a supreme national effort to achieve victory; to secure greater production so that the armies may be fed and the people at home not suffer want; to practise thrift and economy, so that there may be no unnecessary waste, and that every dollar may make its contribution toward winning the war; to require wealth to bear its full share of the burden; and to insure that the reinforcements so urgently needed shall be made available?

Do we realize that the world faces the possibility of a food famine at the end of the year, unless larger crops are grown throughout the world? Do we appreciate that every additional pound of foodstuffs grown this year may prove a valuable contribution to the cause of the Allies?

I am aware, Mr. Chairman, that many people say it is irritating to talk of further production under the conditions which prevail in reference to farm labor. We should put forth every possible effort to meet the labor situation. Agricultural interests are deserving of the greatest sympathy and support in their efforts at greater production under grievous handicaps; but we should not hesitate to speak out and declare the situation as we see it. Better irritation than starvation. Better for us all to face the situation frankly and courageously, and to point out that he who can produce, and does not, may be aiding the enemy and diminishing our chances for final victory; while he who adds to his production is rendering a great and worthy patriotic service. He who lavishly wastes his money at this time, when money is so urgently needed to win the war, is also, unconsciously no doubt, aiding the enemy and diminishing our chances for final victory. We should seek to save where saving is possible, and invest in the war loan, or apply our savings in some way that will help to carry on the war work.

Wealth in this country has not yet been called upon to bear its proper share of the burden. We should have a progressive income tax without delay on a basis commensurate with the need.

Have we any adequate appreciation of the sacrifices of our men at the front, or of how urgently they need reinforcements? I am

afraid we are only half awake at the present time to the whole war situation. Did not Sir William Robertson say the other day that the German army was never so strong as it is at this time? She has a million more men now than she had last year. Germany is not yet defeated. We cannot defeat her unless we send more men to the front to reinforce our gallant men who are there.

During last summer our men were compelled to fight with their ranks seriously depleted. Battalions five hundred, six hundred, seven hundred, eight hundred strong, had to do a whole battalion's duty in that hell of conflict at the Somme, because we had not sufficient men in Great Britain who had completed their training adequately to reinforce the men in the battle line. We now have sufficient men to provide reinforcements for the immediate future; but if the war continues for another year—and who is prepared to say that it will not—before the expiration of the present year we shall face exactly the same situation that we faced last year. Are we to permit the work of these gallant men to fail because the men at home do not respond to the call at this hour? We must back up the men at the front, and be prepared to take whatever measures are necessary to do so.

To-night we acclaim our gallant Canadians who went over Vimy Ridge on Monday morning, and who are still pursuing the foe. We express our heartfelt sympathy with the wives, the parents and the children of those noble men who have fallen during the past few days.

Rupert Brooke, before he made the supreme sacrifice, beautifully expressed for us the service and sacrifice of the young men who have died for their country:

“These laid the world away; poured out the red
Sweet wine of youth; gave up the years to be
Of work and joy, and that unhopèd serene,
That men call age; and those who would have been,
Their sons, they gave, their immortality.

“Blow, bugles, blow! They brought us, for our dearth,
Holiness, lacked so long, and Love and Pain;
Honor has come back, as a king, to earth,
And paid his subjects with a royal wage;
And Nobleness walks in our ways again,
And we have come into our heritage.”

Will we prove worthy of this heritage?

PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

LEADERSHIP.

MARTIN KERR, B.A., PRINCIPAL, EARL KITCHENER SCHOOL,
HAMILTON.

The Imperial Dictionary defines Leadership as "the office of a leader; guidance." The Standard Dictionary says, "the office or position of a leader: guidance; ability to lead." What is a leader? One who knows the road, who can keep ahead and can draw others after him.

The history of the human race shows that leadership has been an essential of progress. Of outstanding Bible characters were Moses, Joshua, Saul, David. The records show that these men were all "called" to the positions they held. They were chosen as strong men, called to differing positions, to lead the Israelites under difficult and trying conditions.

Profane history records such names as Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar, Columbus, Walpole, Howard, Wilberforce, all controlled by some impelling motive of personal ambition, or public service.

If we recognize modern conditions, we must realize that leadership in all the various lines of life is demanded, and demanded by these conditions; leadership in political life, recognizing that unless the light of its legislation and the justice of its administration shine upon the cottage equally as well as upon the mansion, and so make the people a free, a contented and a happy nation, it is but a will o' the wisp, enticing only to despair; leadership in commercial life by men, captains of industry, whose earnings are only an incidental in their toil, and that serve to open up highways to the better civilization of the race; leadership in the realm of arts, science, letters, ideas; in the home, in the church, in the school; capable, with the tremendous forces lying at hand, of working modern miracles, so

that peace and prosperity, righteousness and wisdom may cover the earth as the waters cover the great deep.

The political parties are seeking the leader of vision, and this fact has no small significance to the "boss" and professional politician, but leadership there must be.

The church is neither dead nor dying, but its forces need wiser and less selfish directing, and leadership is demanded.

Not money, but men; not statistics, but dynamics; not how many we can enlist, but how much we can enlist in the enterprise. Li Hung Chang once said: "There are only three classes of people: there are those that are immovable; there are those that are movable; and there are those that move them." And the third class are the leaders, those that really lead in the sense that the course of history would have been essentially different had they not lived.

Wherever there is community life, there is required leadership of a master mind, a noble inspiration, and a high resolve. And every teacher is a leader called to a great work. Called by the material rewards? No! By the lightness of the labor? Oh, no! Has some woman slipped into the work hoping to leave it in two or three or four years? Has some man drifted along into and in the work? The pity of it for themselves and the profession. We have all seen such—those who wanted this leadership, but held back part of the price, carried out dead like Annanias and Sapphira, because they were not true.

Leadership does not depend upon geographical position. That is well worth remembering. Some of our best leaders among the teachers have remained in but one community, and they may continue to direct the thought and energy and moral life of their community in a supremely successful way.

Nor does this leadership depend upon wealth or social position or prestige. Think of Richard Lloyd, the cobbler-preacher.

What, then, is the price of leadership? The first price of leadership is *vision*, the vision that sees the boy of the classroom grown into an intelligent, clean, industrious citizen. But vision alone only makes a man visionary. When Moses saw the burning bush, he did not write poetry. He went and led the people through the wilderness. If we catch a vision we must put that vision in our classroom, and start to realize it, and whether, as the Superintendent

of Education or teacher in S.S. No. —, Nipissing, we can shape the thought and ideals of the community.

The next price of leadership is *knowledge*. Men rise to leadership because they know. Moses learned all the wisdom of the Egyptians; Paul was trained to a great philosopher. The greatest foe to business leadership is superficiality. A man who does not know banking will never be a banker. The banker is the man who begins that subject and studies it until he is a financier. It is the Edison in electricity who knows; the Beethoven in music who knows; the Michael Angelo in art who knows. I tell you it is sheer ignorance on the part of a lot of us that keeps us from the leadership we should occupy.

And there are passion and sacrifice that are facts in leadership, and it is in the latter where leaders particularly fail. The biggest man, after all, is the man who will sacrifice money, property, time, energy, life in instalments of weary days and weary nights, and sleepless nights and toiling days.

The real teacher is really called in the name of sound education. And what is the very root of the problem alike for the home, for the school, for the nation? We can at best impart but little information, but we can direct the power to think, and we can direct the line of thought, and this is the question, the supreme question—making clear, definite and authoritative the moral elements in life.

That question is of prime importance, at once for the individual, for society, for the nation. It suggests to the teacher three questions of the profoundest ethical value:

1. The question of moral distinctions; there is a right and there is a wrong; there is a difference between the right and the wrong.
2. The question of moral obligations; the right must be done and the wrong must not be done.
3. The question of moral rewards and retributions; inevitable moral consequents follow the doing of the right and the doing of the wrong.

Let me quote: "The greatest tragedy of this awful war is not the bloodshed and the horror of the trenches, and the gruesomeness of the war-swept battlefields. All these are hideous beyond compare. But more ghastly still is the unimagined moral suicide alike of men

and of nations, in which the eternal moral distinctions are obliterated, the moral obligations denied, and the moral issues utterly confused.

“What is true for Germany is true for Britain. The law of the Nature of Things is no respecter of nations. Canada has no immunity. The schools of Canada are the seed-plots of ideas. What is sown in the classrooms of the young will be reaped in the citizenship of the middle-aged. In the moral world, like seed like harvest. The men and women in the Teachers’ Institute are immeasurably more important to the life of the nation than are the members of Parliament and the official exponents of the Law.

And the fact of the war has only made the task of the school the more perilous. The strain on the school as the guardian and inspirer of the nation’s ideals and life is severer and more critical than Canada ever dreamed or feared. The soul of the nation calls loudly to the teachers. And the crown of fidelity to the nation’s greatest trust is for that teacher anywhere who stands firm and true in this time of testing and incalculable peril.

The newspapers of the world have reported the death of Richard Lloyd, and told the story of his life.

And who was Richard Lloyd? Let me quote again:

“Not one of the great world’s great men; not a multimillionaire. Nor yet was he born with that strange spell—a name. No door opened to him that answered only to the key of rank. In the world of politics he was not counted. None of the accidents of birth were on his side. He had nothing but an honest mind, a living personality, a clean conscience, a sense of duty—and a chance with a boy.

“Richard Lloyd accepted as a sacred and supreme duty the task of educating his widowed sister’s children. And one of those children, two years old when that task was accepted, was a toddling Welsh laddie, David Lloyd George. At the age of eighty-two Richard Lloyd died, and the whole British Empire spoke a blessing on his name. The lad for whose training he gave himself is the Prime Minister of the world’s greatest Commonwealth, and with worthy pride, Premier Lloyd George acknowledges his everlasting debt to the man who gave him his life start—the start of honest poverty, a love of truth, a sense of duty, and faith in the omnipotence of ideas.

“The omnipotence of ideas! And yet all about us are men who chase the false mirage of wealth, or the broken reed of office, or the vulgarized bauble of knightly name.

“Ideas may be his who has a mind to welcome them. The power of ideas is within the reach of whoever releases them. The coronation of ideas is the distinction awaiting any man who, in his own life, crown truth, and obeys duty and follows in the way of honorable service.

“The thing that came to Richard Lloyd was not strange. The only accident was the chance fact of the flash-light of publicity. The reality of it, the truth of it, the thing that endures and that is its inspiration is in his own splendid sense of the supremacy of ideas when wrought into character, and when touched with a vital personality's fire of fires.

“There really never is a Richard Lloyd but sometime and somewhere he has a chance at a Lloyd George. The conditions may not so meet that the blinded eyes of his own generation see the resultant. Many a teacher in the school of obscurity becomes faint-hearted because the ideas set free in the youthful minds do not at once come to flower and rich fruition. Fidelity and the faith that sees the invisible are the teacher's part. Results may be beyond his ken. But all experience sets its seal to the faith of Richard Lloyd, that no word of real truth spoken into the life of waiting youth, and no touch of living personality on the character of watching childhood is ever lost. But truth, being truth, every Richard Lloyd will one day see his Lloyd George.”

THE ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE UNDER NEW CONDITIONS.

E. S. HOGARTH, B.A., HAMILTON, PRESIDENT, ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE.

At the annual meeting of the O.E.A. in the year 1905, a Joint Committee from the Public School, College and High School, Training, and Kindergarten departments was appointed to investigate and report on the question of forming an organization for mutual help other than the informal Teachers' Associations in the inspectorates and the more representative O.E.A.

This committee reported favorably on the project at the following Easter meeting, and recommended that such an organization be formed. They also presented a draft constitution, which was largely embodied in the final Constitution of the organization, known as The Ontario Teachers' Alliance.

The primary objects were mutual improvements and protection, the providing a medium through which the teachers of the Province could give effective expression to their collective opinions on all educational questions, the providing a means by which those who administer our educational affairs might secure information and advice, based upon the experience of the associated teachers, and in every way further the co-operation of trustees and teachers in all educational interests. Further, to determine and control the qualification for entering the profession, to secure the adoption of an equitable Superannuation Scheme for the teachers of the Province, to secure the compilation of a comprehensive Register of the teachers of the Province, to afford advice in professional matters to individual members of the Union, and to give advice and assistance to them in legal cases of a professional nature, to extend protection to any of its members who might be wrongfully treated, also to exact from them the proper fulfilment of their professional engagements, to discipline any of its members found guilty of unprofessional conduct.

The Ontario Teachers' Alliance has been working along these lines for ten years, and has accomplished something in almost every

line of effort. The Register, known as "Schools and Teachers," through the sympathy and support given by the Education Department, has become an actuality, and is proving of immense value to our Public School teachers. This is being issued yearly by the Department, and is a mine of information regarding each school section in the Province. Professional advice has been given to a number of teachers who, through no fault of their own, have been placed in embarrassing circumstances, or been imposed upon, or who were merely in ignorance as to what course to pursue. The case which occurred at Midland last Easter is a case in point. I shall read the account of the case as reported in the *Lindsay Warder*:

"A case of special interest to school teachers and trustees was heard at Midland on Saturday last (October 7) before His Honor Judge Wiseman. It appears that at Easter last two teachers in the Public School (one of them from Lindsay), in order to catch the train for their home town, so that they might spend Eastertide under the parental roof, left the school at 3 o'clock instead of 4, as usual, which the Board claimed was contrary to orders. The School Board held that the teachers had disobeyed orders, and were consequently dismissed.

"As a matter of fact, one teacher dismissed school at 3 o'clock, according to a long-established custom regarding primary rooms, while the other teacher did not dismiss school until 4 o'clock, as she left a legally qualified teacher in her place from 3 to 4 o'clock.

"On being dismissed the teachers took the matter up with the Ontario Teachers' Alliance, and were advised that they had acted in accordance with their rights and legally.

"The case of the first teacher was heard on September 7, and the other teacher on October 7, the result being that Judge Wiseman exonerated the teachers and reprimanded the School Board for hasty and wrongful dismissal of the teachers. He held that the teachers did not disobey orders, but left school with the full knowledge and approval of the principal. His Honor further said that his sympathies were entirely with the teachers, and he therefore allowed them their two months' salary and expenses, the School Board to pay all costs of court. The case, he said, was entirely one-sided, and only one trustee was called on to give evidence, although the other trustees were present."

This is an illustration of the need for the work of the O.T.A. to be carried on still, and, as we hope, under the ægis of the O.E.A.

Some teachers have applied to the O.T.A. for assistance, and have received the answer that, in the opinion of the O.T.A., they had no grievance that the O.T.A. could help them in, as they were contributing to the condition themselves. The Executive has tried to preserve a just attitude throughout.

The Superannuation Scheme, which was one of its chief objectives, has had its constant support, and the Alliance can claim some credit for the successful propaganda which has finally crowned the efforts of the Main Superannuation Committee.

The O.T.A. has in a large measure failed to unite the teachers, as was expected, into a body for mutual support and consultation. Many of the teachers seem to feel—and some have stated—that they do not need the assistance of other teachers.

The Executive has felt for some time that the aims of the O.E.A. and O.T.A. were in many respects identical, and that the one general organization should do all the work, as it seemed to be duplicating machinery. With this object in view, a Joint Committee from the two bodies was appointed and have endeavored to work out a satisfactory basis, by means of which a special committee, elected by the O.E.A. at its annual meeting, should work under the control of the O.E.A., and thus widen its present sphere of usefulness along the lines suggested above.

Another question has been emphasized in the recent vote asked for by the Government on the Superannuation Scheme. The Government and the Committee were disappointed at the opposition and the indifference displayed by so many teachers; and a reason should be sought and found. It has at least shown that the teachers are not a united body, and have not one purpose, for the advocacy of the Superannuation Scheme was not a wholly selfish one. At any rate, the majority of the young teachers were not interested in such a scheme; that is to say, they did not think it was going to concern them personally; or, in other words, they did not expect to continue in the so-called profession long enough to personally reap any advantage from it. Are they wholly to blame? Have we older teachers shown any interest in them? Have they not—at least the majority of them—become teachers as a matter of course, because so

many of our pupils at our High Schools have done so in the past to make enough money to enable them to enter some other more lucrative profession, or to temporarily occupy themselves, and, while unmarried, lay by a little money for what may be ahead of them? All this assisted by the fact that when a pupil reaches the Third Form in our High Schools there seem to be only two courses open: the teachers' and the University, and naturally the teachers' course leads most readily to a return of money—the training being gratis. Hence so many are carried on the tide into the teachers' ranks, almost purposeless. This has created the problem, but it has not solved it. We, the older teachers, should have taken greater interest in the young teachers entering the ranks; we should have given them the benefit of our experience; we should have inspired them with our ideals—and our ideals should have risen as we have lived and served—for, as I have said before, the teacher's life is essentially one of service. We should have removed stones from their pathway; we should have smoothed the grades that they had to make; we should have taken them by the hand and said: There is an expansive tableland up here, where the vista widens and where the noblest purposes of life may find realization—for can anyone ask higher reward than that that has come to every faithful teacher who has received the "I owe my inspiration, my success in life to you." We have just read in our daily press of the tribute paid to a very humble citizen of Wales, one who was content simply to do his duty that another might have opportunities, denied to him. Is this not the lesson of the Great Teacher? I read from the *London Times*:—

"The body of Richard Lloyd, uncle and foster-father of the Prime Minister, was laid to rest in the village cemetery at Criccieth," writes a *Times* correspondent.

"Until a few weeks ago few people in the outside world knew of Richard Lloyd. For all that he will go down to history, not entirely with reflected fame, but for qualities and achievements of his own. For fifty years he was pastor to the little church of Criccieth, and in all that time, until his last illness, he missed but three Sundays at his pastor's desk. He led his congregation until three Sundays ago, when old age called him, and he took to his bed to die with a jest and a prayer on his lips.

"The Prime Minister walked behind the hearse, and with him were his son, Major Lloyd George, and his brother. The whole

attendance at the cemetery was not above a hundred people, and so simple was the ceremony that a stranger, coming on it unawares, would have missed its real significance. It was the very keynote of democracy. Here was the most highly placed man in the world's greatest Empire burying his foster-father and uncle, the village cobbler.

"Down in the village there was paid a tribute to the dead man such as few men that come out into the world ever receive. This man of sheltered life was known to all these simple folk, and they talked of him in honest superlatives. He was a man who might have made the same mark on the world as his foster-son, but he preferred to let his light illumine his own small circle. How many men can mould character as he did? How many men can set themselves to learn an unknown language alone, and then teach another? How many men can stint and save with one object, and that the making of another man?

"He has left his legacy in the being of another man, and he has left memories that will make this little village in the Welsh hills a place of pilgrimage in days to come.

"This uncle, Richard Lloyd, the village shoemaker of Llanystumdw, was a strong and lofty character, dwelling ever 'as in the Great Taskmaster's eye,' " says *The Observer*. "Those about him he influenced powerfully and for good. His religious faith was like an inspiration.

"He gave a beautiful devotion to his sister's orphaned children, and as the bright genius of one of them gave its signs, Richard Lloyd helped the boy with his studies, and fitted him to aim at no ordinary mark. Those years were the foundation of a career as romantic as any in political annals. No one can be much acquainted with the world and human character without realizing that some men and women, hardly known beyond a narrow circle, are as great in soul and natural capacity as those who conquer fame."

Many of our humble teachers have had experiences similar to that of Richard Lloyd.

We have not met the young teacher struggling with a multitude of problems with the helping hand that we should have, and this is one of the tasks I am placing upon you, the members of the Ontario Educational Association, to-day. The O.T.A. has done

much, but it has not been able to realize its ideal. Nor can we ever, for as we advance our ideals rise and widen and our opportunities increase.

The O.E.A., without question, represents the best thought, the best experience, the best ideals of the teaching body. The Board of Directors is composed of men and women representing every phase of education in the Province, and those who compose the Board, as a rule, are outstanding members of each section, those with experience and those in whom the various sections have confidence. What more fitting body could be chosen to advise and direct in the work of counsel to our teachers? Has not the process of division been carried at least as far as desirable in the O.E.A.? Should we not have some more effort made to make us feel that we are educationists rather than Kindergarteners or Classical Specialists? There is a danger lest we lose our perspective if we dwell only upon our own small sphere, important as that is; so we must preserve our perspective or we are not working in the best interests of the whole.

We believe we see the attainment of what has been a vision to many of us for several years: a tolerably satisfactory Superannuation Scheme, but we must keep a small committee to supervise and suggest as to its working out. We should have a representative Educational Organ in this Province, and that is a work to the attainment of which a committee should devote its efforts; for nothing will inform and unite teachers so thoroughly as a regular visitor of this kind to constantly present our ideas and suggestions to those who cannot, for example, attend this Easter session. I wish to make it perfectly clear that I am not casting any aspersions on any educational journal already published, for I fully appreciate what is being done; but there is a wider field either in conjunction with what is already being done or in another field.

If I might briefly summarize the work the O. T. A. has done in the past year, it will emphasize the fact that there is still work to do.

It has co-operated with the Government in the publishing and circulating of Schools and Teachers.

It has given counsel to a teacher who felt he had been slandered by some of the ratepayers and one of the trustees.

It gave counsel to another teacher who felt that she was being unfairly taxed, and who, on the advice being given, gladly paid the fee and joined the O.T.A.

The teachers in the Midland affair were advised to report for duty for a certain time, to show their good faith in trying to carry out their part of the agreement, and the Executive made a grant to help defray their legal expenses.

Now, these obligations, which we owe to the new teachers, the continuation of the work of assisting by wise counsel the unfortunate or the inexperienced, the supervision of the Superannuation Scheme, the upbuilding of our occupation into a profession, the taking an active part in legislation—that part being the embodiment of the combined wisdom of the O.E.A., and the publication of a representative organ seem to me to be work which the O.E.A. should assume to justify the preamble at the head of its Constitution, viz.: “to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching; and to promote the cause of education in Ontario.”

The means of working this out has been suggested in the recommendation of the Joint Committee, viz., the election at the annual meeting of the O.E.A. of a standing committee of eight members to take charge of this work—the committee to be known as the “Legislative and Rights Committee. Half the members of the committee to retire each year. The O.E.A. to be responsible for its expenses, much in the same way as it has been for the Superannuation Committee. The committee to be under the control of the O.E.A., and to have three representatives on the Board of Directors.

This, as I have said, should be a means of extending the effectiveness of the O.E.A., in harmony with its aims.

I would also recommend that an increased effort should be made to interest the teachers in general in the work carried on here—through the various Teachers’ Institutes, and that those asking for advice should be asked to join the O.E.A. at a nominal fee of 50 cents. That implies, of course, that all members of the O.E.A. should receive advice gratis. The matter comes up for consideration at this evening’s meeting, and I ask you, as the largest Section, to give it your sympathetic support.

GOOD TEETH—GOOD HEALTH—GOOD CITIZENSHIP.

WALLACE SECCOMBE, D.D.S., CHIEF DENTAL OFFICER OF SCHOOLS,
TORONTO.

Recent health statistics, while indicating a decrease in diseases due to infection, show a marked increase in the diseases of the digestive tract. Dental disease is a disease of the digestive system and should not be considered as a condition governed by other laws or as something apart from the rest of the body. Of all the diseases of the digestive system, dental disease is certainly the most prevalent. Because of its almost universal occurrence, its astounding and ever-increasing prevalence, and its serious effects upon the general health, dental caries is rightly considered the most calamitous scourge of modern civilization.

The occurrence of dental disease has been concomitant with the advances of civilization. The people of this age are paying a tremendous price for their luxurious living and their deflection, in matters of diet, from the simple and natural, to the complex and artificial. To our discredit, it may be said, that immigrants who formerly lived upon a simple, wholesome diet, with little sugar, and who consequently were free from dental disease, generally develop dental caries quite rapidly when brought under the baneful influence of Canadian dietary habits.

Lack of thorough mastication, and over-indulgence in sugars, jams, syrups, candies, etc., are the two main factors which render the teeth and surrounding parts susceptible to disease. The use of the toothbrush is really an artificial means of attempting to overcome the unhygienic condition of the oral cavity, resulting from lack of mastication and over-indulgences in sweets. If dental disease is to be prevented we must get back to fundamentals. Toothbrush and dentifrice undoubtedly expiate the results of our indulgence, but we must learn to get back to first principles and remove the cause of modern dental conditions. This is the first and most important step in prevention.

Sugar is certainly quite indispensable to the body; but we sometimes forget that all of the starchy foods (flour, potatoes, white bread, cereals, etc.) are converted into sugar during the process of digestion, and are available to the body as such. When free

sugar is added, in such quantity as is consumed by the average person, we are over-indulging. The sweet-taste, the sugar-habit, soon grows, and the result is not only a glycosuria, but also an overflow of sugar from the general circulation into the saliva. The sugar element, thus returning to the mouth in nascent condition, exercises a most pernicious influence upon the teeth.

The main trouble is that our sugar consumption is not confined to the form in which nature intended (as in fruits, milk, vegetables, cane-sugar, etc.), but the pure sugar is extracted from natural foods, and is consumed in concentrated form. The popular taste for this extraction has so alarmingly increased that the world's supply of sugar-cane was inadequate for the demand. Consequently, thousands upon thousands of acres of land that might better be used for growing grains are used for the production of millions of tons of beets, not eaten in the natural way, but crushed and destroyed, for the purpose of extracting sugar, that this unfortunate and artificial taste of the "civilized" members of the human family may be gratified. As civilized beings, we are, in many things, to be sincerely pitied.

Statistics show that the people of England, Canada and the United States consume more sugar per capita than the people of any other nation. Our rate of consumption is twice that of France or Germany, three times that of Austria or Russia, five times that of Spain, and eight times that of Italy. The world's production of sugar is forty billion pounds per annum (twenty million tons), and of this stupendous amount, United States alone consumes four billion pounds per year, costing four hundred million dollars, and representing a consumption of eighty-five pounds per capita, per annum.

If the problem of dental disease is to be met adequately, it must be faced and dealt with as a preventive problem affecting the rising generation. While the question is certainly a health problem, it is also without doubt a matter of education. The word education is used in no narrow sense. Education is recognized to-day as the training and developing of boys and girls that they may, in due course, take their places as useful members of society. It has been said that "Education reaches its greatest usefulness when it functions in service to society." It is really a matter of training good citizens. And of all human agencies, the influence of the school teacher is certainly the most important in this regard.

From the standpoint of the prevention of dental disease, the influence of the school is a potent factor in the encouragement of good dental habits, of oral cleanliness, thorough mastication of food, and indulgence in much less sugar.

By thorough mastication of food, people could eat much less, get just as much nourishment from the smaller quantity, and avoid frequent digestive disturbances. At a recent meeting in this city, I made the statement that "this country could get along with one-third less food than it now consumes, and get just as much nourishment from the two-thirds, if people would chew their food properly." A newspaper reporter, with practical mind, capitalized this statement by stating that if one-third of Canada's food bill could be saved by thorough mastication, a national saving of some \$66,000,000 per annum would result. Though, at the time, the statement was treated in a spirit of levity, it was, later, shown to have practical significance by the fact that the Italian Minister of Agriculture was subsequently reported to have issued instructions to the people of Italy "to adopt the system of thorough mastication, as an aid in solving the national food shortage." The press dispatch stated that the method was being tried in the schools of Rome.

Mastication is nature's cleansing agent for the teeth, and thorough chewing of the food is an important factor in the maintenance of the dental organs in a condition of health and cleanliness. The teeth, if they are to obtain their proper blood supply, need exercise just as much as any other part of the body. By thorough mastication of food, a correct physiological flow of saliva is maintained, simultaneously with the ingestion of the food; and it is only under such conditions that the salivary secretion is thoroughly incorporated with the food, and thus able to perform its normal digestive action properly.

Gum chewing, however, is but an artificial substitute for mastication. It is a bad habit, causing an abnormal flow of saliva between meals; and if indulged in, throws the whole digestive process out of balance. Gum-chewing is a mental distraction, and should be persistently discouraged.

Twice the chewing and one-half the sweets is a splendid war-time motto for school children.

One of the most important of the recent discoveries of medical and dental science is that rheumatism, neuritis, heart trouble and

other systemic conditions are frequently due to an infection lodged about the root or roots of teeth. There may be neither pain nor soreness in these parts, and yet the X-ray clearly show unmistakable signs of a low form of infection, at the root of a tooth. Infection thus reaches the general circulation, and a manifestation of disease results, according to the part of the body attacked.

Under our compulsory system of education, we compel children to sit side by side in the classroom, though the dental or other physical condition of the one may render him a menace to the health of the other. And what of the teacher's health? In the average human mouth there are twenty-two square inches of dental surfaces, exclusive of tongue and tonsil. Thus, in a classroom of forty scholars there are almost six square feet of dental surface. With such an area, covered by food debris, in various stages of fermentation, with putrefaction and even pus, and with the air passing and repassing over those surfaces, and the imperfect classroom ventilation, is it any wonder that both teacher and scholars feel the effect of vitiated or even foul air?

It has been estimated (excluding those places where school dental clinics are in operation) that over ninety per cent. of the scholars attending school in the Province of Ontario have defective teeth. Not only are the teeth diseased, but in many cases the oral cavity is allowed constantly to remain in an unhygienic condition. Teeth are decayed and prematurely lost; mastication is impaired; irregularity of the teeth and dental deformity result; the general health suffers; and hours of pain are endured by the average school child, because of dental neglect.

Poorly nourished children are sickly and backward, mentally and physically. A child which is suffering physically cannot be expected to be alert mentally, and it is found that a great number of the children who are backward in school have defective teeth. These children are an expense on the community because they have to receive extra and special educational attention. The money which should be spent in caring for the physical needs of such children will be saved in the lessened cost of educating them; while the general health and capacity of the pupils will be improved.

Through the active co-operation of the teachers, parents, and school nurses, the school dental officers in Toronto have been able to

reduce the number of children with dental defects to fifty-one per cent. By recent legislative action, the direction of medical and dental work, in the schools of Toronto, is to be transferred from the Board of Education to the Department of Health. The local Health Officer, Dr. C. J. Hastings, fully appreciates the absolute necessity of co-operation with the teachers and school officers; and it is therefore expected that the Toronto school teachers will co-operate just as loyally under the new conditions as under the old.

The child is valued to-day as never before. The loss of manpower occasioned by the war places an increased value upon the boys and girls of to-day. They are our greatest national asset. There is no single factor so potent as oral hygiene, in maintaining the health, appearance, and comfort of the child. Experience has shown that oral cleanliness increases the individual self-respect and has a direct effect upon the child's general conduct and cleanliness. A well-kept set of teeth has come to be regarded as the hall-mark of culture and refinement.

THE KINDERGARTEN PRIMARY WHERE THERE IS NO KINDERGARTEN:

MISS ETHEL M. HALL, PRIMARY TEACHER, WESTON.

Every great biography is the record of the entrance into the world of a *new force*, bringing with it something different from all that was there before, and of the way it gradually gets itself incorporated with the *old*, so as to become a part of the *future*. Obviously, therefore, *two things* are needed by those who wish to understand it—*first, a clear comprehension of the nature of the new force itself; and, secondly, a view of that with which it is to be incorporated.*

Without the latter, the specific difference of the former cannot be understood, nor can the manner of its reception be appreciated—the *welcome* with which it is received or the *opposition* with which it has to struggle.

The Kindergarten-Primary has brought into the educational system *more that is original and destined to modify the future training of childhood* than anything which has ever entered it. But we can neither understand it, or the fortunes which it may encounter in seeking to incorporate itself into our school system without a clear view of the conditions in which it must work.

Hitherto we have had our Kindergartens introducing beauty and rhythm into the lives of little children. We have had our Primary Schools appealing to the more practical-minded of our population.

The utilitarian age in which we are living cries out: "Why this waste of money, time and energy? Why not blend these two?" In answer to this appeal, I am here this morning to show the result of an effort to unify the courses of the Kindergarten and Primary.

Mary Queen of Scots said: "You will find 'Calais' written upon my heart." I think you will find 'Kindergarten-Primary' written upon mine. For upon nothing else in all my teaching experience have I put so much time and thought as upon the unification of the Kindergarten and Primary work in such a way as to utilize, as much as possible of the Kindergarten work and still accomplish the First Grade work.

This is no easy proposition, nor will the Kindergarten-Primary teacher's life be a "flowery bed of ease." Rhythmic work is not accomplished in a day. What appears so on the surface may be the result of hours and hours of strenuous thought.

It meant much to cast aside all former years of Primary experience and launch out upon a new and untried field of work—for it was absolutely untried as far as the Primary teacher is concerned.

I spent three yearse working out a scheme of unification before I attempted to try the experiment. My experience was something like that of the "Reed" in Mrs. Browning's Musical Instrument. You remember the lines:

"He tore out a reed, the great god Pan,
From the deep, cool bed of the river;
The limpid water turbidly ran,
And the broken lilies a-dying lay,
And the dragon-fly had flown away,
Ere he brought it out of the river.

High on the shore sat the great god Pan,
While turbidly flowed the river;
And *hacked* and *hewed*, as a great god can,
With his hard, bleak steel at the patient reed,
Till there was not a sign of leaf indeed
To prove it fresh from the river.

He cut it short, the great god Pan;
(How tall it stood in the river!)
Then *drew* the *pith* like, the *heart of a man*,
Steadily from the outside ring,
And notched the poor, dry, empty thing
In holes, as he sat by the river.

'This is the way,' laughed the great god Pan—
(Laughed, while he sat by the river)—
The only way since gods began
To make *sweet music* they can succeed."

So, like the reed, I faced Sept., 1916, the past of my Primary work discarded, and the future a mystery. Never again could I feel myself exclusively a Primary teacher, because I had become so

saturated with the Spirit of the Kindergarten that the only way I could continue in elementary work was by putting heart and soul into Kindergarten work.

Pan did not leave the Reed after he had stripped it of all its former glory.

“Dropping his mouth to a hole in the reed,
He blew in *power*, by the river.”

Thus I found when I had severed my connection with my old-time Primary work, that the way opened out in a wonderful way. Difficulties vanished unexpectedly, and I was able to follow the vision of the work as I had seen it.

The year has been a happy one notwithstanding its strenuous nature, and has proved a wonderful success so far. I am convinced, without a doubt, that the Kindergarten Primary is THE course of study for pupils where no Kindergarten precedes.

At times the gravity of the responsibility of working out the unification of Kindergarten and Primary has been almost overwhelming, but I have felt the inspiration of minds greater than my own, and the love and sympathy of those in the first rank of the movement. Deliberately turning my back upon former years, I took as my motto Browning's inspiring lines:

“One who never turned his back,
But marched breast forward.
Never thought but clouds would break.
Never dreamed, though right were routed wrong
 would triumph.
Held, we fall to rise,
Are baffled, to fight better.”

What is this Kindergarten-Primary? It is *not* an old-time Primary room. And it certainly is *not* a Kindergarten, as it has been successfully operated where both exist. It is a correlated Kindergarten and Primary. The best of each course selected and blended into one, with the joy and sunshine of the Kindergarten permeating the more definite work of the Primary Grade. As yet there are no specific works upon Unification, so the Kindergarten-Primary teacher must read *widely*, and when she has perceived the vision of Unification, she must work toward her ideal.

Over and over again this year has the question been asked: "Why cannot any Primary teacher become a Kindergarten-Primary without special study?" I think I have answered the question fully by relating my own experience. Like Paul, "I was a Primary of the Primaries," and, like him, it took a blinding flash of light to make me see; and the vision came after a period of darkness, too. Nicodemus came to Christ with somewhat the same question in his mind: "What is this new doctrine you are preaching? Wherein does it differ from the old Jewish law? I am an Israelitish teacher of long standing. I represent the great Jewish Sanhedrin." Christ answered his thought with these words: "Ye must be born again." "How can these things be?" said Nicodemus. "Art thou a Master in Israel and understandest not?" said Christ. "It is a case of Spirit," said Christ. "Marvel not that I said unto you, Ye must be born again."

Just as the seed cast into the earth must die in order to live again, so the Primary teacher must die to her old work before she can become a Kindergarten-Primary teacher.

Someone remarked to me the other day: "But this Kindergarten-Primary is merely a question of 'Busy Work' in the Primary?" Most assuredly not! It means something far deeper than Busy Work.

The old idea of Busy Work was something given to keep little people out of mischief.

The New Education has changed the name of Busy Work to the Period of Independent Expression, which means vastly more, as it presupposes former development of work on the part of the teacher, and clear, definite ideas on the part of the pupil, which he expresses in this Free Period. These periods of "Independent Expression" are carefully supervised periods. The pupil is free to work out his own ideas, and the teacher can tell at a glance whether or not he understands the principle involved.

The problem of receiving pupils directly from the home is essentially different from that of the Kindergarten child entering the Kindergarten-Primary. Had I the power to prevent immature children from entering, I believe I should prefer those directly from the home. They are so eager and responsive. It is an inspiration to watch their faces each morning as they enter the room—

eager expectancy and happiness shining in their eyes. There is no self-consciousness apparent, but controlled spontaneity. The joy of the children has been a marvellous revelation to me this year.

The most strenuous parts of the course of study are presented in a happy play-spirit, and the child absorbs knowledge unconsciously.

In September we began with the First Gift, and by the 1st of December the pupils were quite ready for the Fifth and Sixth Froebel's Gifts.

Children from the home have never been familiar with the Gifts. We developed much language work with the First and Second Gifts. The Third and Fourth Gifts were an addition to our Number work, besides their value in Building. Of course the stress was laid upon the Fifth and Sixth Gifts, which the children *love*.

The addition of all Kindergarten material to the Kindergarten-Primary does not lighten work in Reading, Language and Number. Therefore the Kindergarten-Primary teacher must have a definite, systematic and far-reaching programme. That is where a Primary teacher has an advantage. Her systematized work in Reading aids her in covering the work rapidly. The Kindergarten-Primary Course is essentially a Reading and Language course, but the development of Number is not neglected. On the contrary, the psychological development of Number was never more thoroughly done than in the Kindergarten-Primary. The child uses all his senses—not merely the eye and ear. The sense of touch, which is a valuable aid to memory, is constantly in use.

Education has often been confused with verbal instruction. "*The most educative experiences are the wordless contact with things.*"

Visualization is constantly in evidence. The pupil's hand-work is placed where his eye sees it. He reproduces his manual work with pencil and paper. *Efficiency*, not *information*, has become the educational ideal. The *brain* and the *hand* must work together in all life's problems, for to be efficient is to put *thought* and *feeling* into a form which reach the thought and feeling of others. Thus the Kindergarten-Primary pupil makes his Number experiences permanent by modelling, mounting, cutting and pasting.

Little children turn to construction unconsciously as they are motor in their activities. Thus the hand-work of the Kindergarten-Primary is used to develop Number in a *reasonable way*, thoroughly in accord with the age and mental growth of the child. The old-time Primary teacher may have to be on her guard. She may be impatient of results and disturb her plants before they are fully developed. Wishing to test a theory in Number work, I waited until I had developed all the addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and fractional parts of the numbers as high as *nine*. On February ninth, I gave the pupils a set of Number Cards involving all the operations. The result was beyond my anticipations. I felt like the woman in the parable of the Lost Coin. I wanted someone to *rejoice* with me. However, all sympathetic spirits were too far away; so I had to repress my own enthusiasm.

Some Kindergarten-Primary teacher may find the Reading and Language side most strenuous. Here again our hand-work becomes an aid. It gives the child a sense of power to create something, and this sense of power reacts upon his ability to speak and read fluently.

Early in the year the work must be kept simple. Let us suppose that the pupil has cut and mounted "an apple" or "a cat" or other familiar object. His card may contain a word or short sentence in script or print (preferably the latter), the difficulty corresponding to the ability and advancement of the pupil. The word or sentence will appear upon the B.B. also, thus emphasizing the visual. Gradually, by systematic, graded steps, he advances, until he illustrates a nature poem or short story. (Note.—The story may appear upon the B.B. in script.) The child illustrates the story, then mounts upon a card having the printed version. He then re-reads his story from the card, thus combining script and print from the *beginning*. Unknown words are easily grasped from the context, and retained when associated with the manual work. Such little verses as:—

"High up in the sky
Shines the great sun."

"The moon has a face
Like the clock in the hall."

"Little lamb, who made thee?"

"Twinkle, twinkle, little star."

"One little rabbit
Under a tree,
Called to the others,
"Come and find me."

"Over in the meadow,
In a hole in a tree,
Lived a mother blue-bird
And her little birdies three."

We use the Picture Sewing Cards in the same way.

The pupils sew a *house* upon a card which says, "Here is my home." They sew a *boat*. The card says:

"It rains on umbrellas here,
And on the ships at sea."

You will see that sentences from the Primer and the First Reader may be used.

MacDougal says: "The world becomes real to us only as we are in active relation to it." So in these Manual Reading lessons, the written language becomes pleasantly familiar to the child.

Phonics? Oh, yes, we teach *phonics*. We teach *whole words*, *whole sentences*, *phonograms*, *stories*, *nursery rhymes*, *Nature poems*, and always a *Lullaby* once a week. These Kindergarten-Primary pupils are not very far past its soothing influence. We read *everything* because we *love* to read, even before we know the words.

I asked my little nephew how he knew where to place the blocks of the Third and Fourth Gifts. "Oh, I just read it off the box," he said. He takes reading as a matter of course. That is the natural way of learning to read. That is what we are striving after in the Kindergarten-Primary. We let the pupils visualize reading matter all the time. They have free access to piles of picture story books and supplementary primers. Printed matter should never be a foreign language to the Canadian child. Of course, as a Kindergarten-Primary, we have the apparatus of word-builders, sentence-builders, word-matching, picture-matching, child's spellers, etc.,

but these must be used wisely and not too soon. They can never take the place of the teacher and the B.B. They are used in periods of "Independent Expression" to test the work done before.

The Kindergarten-Primary teacher must see far ahead of each day's work; plan carefully; note the result of each lesson; record the result; retain what is useful and discard all useless methods and appliances at once, because the Kindergarten-Primary course is designed to give the *greatest good* in the *shortest time*, with *least waste of energy* to the developing child. He learns to read *better* and more fluently in *six months* than in a year of otherwise formal work.

Just as the Cutting lessons may be applied to Reading and Number, so the Construction lessons may also be utilized. The child folds the sixteen-square fold as a basis for many things. He can count the squares, find the half, quarter, eighth, or sixteenth part of the square surface. He may cut off one strip and make a "Take-away story," as $16 - 4 = 12$. He may cut off two strips and make another $16 - 8 = 8$. Or he may develop a *times* story: $4 \times 4 = 16$, or a division story: $16 \div 4 = 4$, or $16 \div 8 = 2$, or count by fours, as 4, 8, 12, 16, and afterwards string the beads by fours or place his pegs or seeds in fours, or fractional part: $\frac{1}{2}$ of $16 = 8$; $\frac{1}{2}$ of $8 = 4$.

Correlated with the Gift work he gets the terms oblong, square, angle, triangle, which he can reproduce in folding paper and make permanent by mounting.

Correlated with his games, he plays "Pussy Wants a Corner," or "Pussy Wants an Angle."

It would be impossible to give more than a *tiny glimpse* of a year's work in the Kindergarten-Primary: I would rather a child should spend two years in the joyous work of the Kindergarten-Primary than in the Fourth Class.

Gessell says: "The great tragedy of the schools is the thwarting of the creative instinct of workmanship by a formal and suffocating environment. The problem of pedagogy is so to re-shape life that all the latent sprightliness, plasticity, geniality and creativeness of children will come to their fulness." The Kindergarten-Primary child loves to be busy and profitably employed. He loves to create and express himself in abounding life and joy. The play-spirit of the Kindergarten-Primary appeals to the child at this

stage of his mental development. The wise teacher can discern when he has passed the stage. The physical nature of the child is developed in the joyous free-play of the games, marches and rhythms. Dr. Stanley Hall called play "Motor poetry." Every child should be a poet, and every little life a poem, if it be not repressed and joyless.

Formal drill impedes development in the young child and makes stilted, nervous pupils. In free-play the muscles relax and new cells are created instead of wasting those already formed. The Kindergarten-Primary child is just running over with joyous, rhythmic play. As he loves motion, we can utilize this desire in all kinds of phonic, number and sense games.

Are we teaching the child to be disorderly? No, indeed! He is too happy all day long. We have a song we *love to sing*:

"FAIRY DISCIPLINE."

"Some dear little children went to Fairy Land
To see the Fairies work and join the Fairy band.
Said they to old King Fairy: "May we come and live with you?"
He put his glasses on and said: "Well, now, what can you do?"

Can you work, can you play?
Can you sing all day?
Can you make folks happy?
Can you make them gay?
Can you jump, can you run?
Can you make lots of fun?
If you can, you may come,
You may come, come, come!"

"The children then took hold of old King Fairy's hand,
And went to all the poor and sick folk in the land.
They went to the poor children who had to work all day,
They helped them with their little tasks and taught them how
to play.

How to work, how to play,
How to sing all day,
How to make folks happy,
How to make them gay,
How to jump, how to run,
How to make lots of fun.
Will you come? Will you come?
Will you come, come come?

If pupils live in this ideal atmosphere, the question of discipline and exercise will resolve itself in their play. "For play is the guardian of the child's health and conduct."

Open wide the windows. Let in God's free air and sunshine. Have frequent joyous game periods, varied by marches, and you will accomplish more in fifteen minutes than in an hour of stilted seat occupation.

The morning exercises of the Kindergarten-Primary are a key to the day's work, and shed an atmosphere of perfect understanding between pupils and teacher, which is necessary in this *school-home*. They are varied: Nature Study, Ethics, Heroism, Patriotism, *the Story* and always the loving good-morning and personal greeting for each pupil.

Give of *yourself*. The pupils will respond:

"Forever the sun is pouring his gold
On a thousand fields that beg and borrow.
His warmth he squanders on summits cold,
His wealth on homes of want and sorrow.
To *withhold* his largess of precious light
Is to bury himself in *eternal night*.
To give is to live.

A great teacher is superior to her equipment, and projects herself and her spirit into her room. She knows how to establish a working attitude, and keep every child actively and profitably engaged.

The enthusiastic teacher does not mind self-sacrifice. She is willing to help where possible by adapting everything workable with least expense to the school.

There are at present *two* objections to a Kindergarten-Primary where there is no Kindergarten:

(1) The absolute misapprehension of the *scope* of the work covered.

(2) The *confusion* of the terms *Kindergarten* and *Kindergarten-Primary* on the part of parents. Thus they send immature children.

Five-year-old children are, *as a rule*, too young for the more strenuous parts of the course Reading and Language. Out of two thousand five-year-old children taken into the First Grade of the

Buffalo schools in 1915-16, fifteen hundred failed to make the grade in a year. This information was given by the Kindergarten-First Grade Magazine, with the remark: "It is interesting to have definite proof of a fact long known to Primary teachers of long experience."

Twenty-seven five-year-olds entered my Kindergarten-Primary in September. They have responded wonderfully, but I would not advocate a five-year-old standard. Normal six-year-old children learn to read in a few months.

The Education Department would aid the work very much by making a definite regulation regarding the age of Kindergarten-Primary pupils—also by making a *clearer* statement of the amount of Reading to be done in the Kindergarten-Primary.

Give me a Kindergarten-Primary room, bright with sunshine, artistically decorated with pictures and plants; having a sand-table, victrola; plenty of B.B. space for Reading and Language or Nursery Rhyme work, with Kindergarten-Primary equipment in workable quantities, and a class of joyous six-year-old pupils, and there is no place on earth where I would rather be every day.

"For, the eyes of a child are sweeter
Than any hymn we have sung;
And wiser than any sermon,
Is the lisp of a childish tongue."

*TO WHAT EXTENT CAN VOCATIONAL DIRECTION BE
GIVEN TO BOYS AND GIRLS IN RURAL SCHOOLS?*

PRESIDENT G. C. CREELMAN, B.S.A., LL.D., COMMISSIONER OF
AGRICULTURE FOR ONTARIO.

I once knew a lawyer, of a mechanical turn of mind, whose income was more than \$20,000 a year; when he was fifty years old, he solemnly declared that he was sorry he had not followed his natural bent, and become a carpenter. He argued that the brain work which led to brain fag was too strenuous; clients were so keen to make and keep money that lawsuits involving large financial interests were brain-racking affairs from the lawyer's standpoint. "If," said he, "I had been encouraged and given some direction when a boy, I believe that even with my delicate constitution I would have been robust and happy with saw and axe and chisel."

Many men who were raised on farms and afterwards removed to cities are constantly regretting that they ever left the country, and many of them would go back if they could carry with them the home comforts and conveniences to which they have become accustomed, and which they have learned to appreciate.

Further, I sincerely believe that it is not the glare of the white lights, or the cheap show, or the general excitement of the city that attracts the country boys and girls to the towns and cities of Ontario, but it is rather the narrow outlook and the lack of social life in the farming communities. Youth must be served, and all the parents and all educators must try always to keep that fact in mind.

Plowing and harrowing and hoeing and haying and harvesting may be all good healthy forms of exercise, but they are not the highest kind of entertainment year in and year out.

Should we, then, try to influence the boy and girl to stay on the farm? I think we should, if we can, instil in their young minds:—

- (1) A sound knowledge of the principles of right living.
- (2) A sound knowledge of the principles of right-farming for the boys, and right-housekeeping for the girls.

AGRICULTURE FOR THE BOYS.

We have in Ontario one of the very best farming countries in the world. A good climate, good soil, and plentiful rainfall insures

good crops. The year 1916 witnessed the poorest harvest Ontario has seen in fifty years, and yet, no one has starved; we have not had to ask our own or any other government to supply us with food. On the contrary, we have exported food products by the millions of dollars' worth.

We are also fortunate in having a population composed largely of English, Irish and Scotch ancestry. These people have intermarried until we have an intelligent, industrious and temperate people.

Then what is the matter?

The consensus of opinion of town and city people is that there is something wrong with country life.

Everybody is talking about it.

If farmers took it seriously, they would be on the "mourner's bench."

Farmers are not alarmed.

What is the real problem, and what is it not?

It is not—

(1) Rural deterioration.

(2) Rural degeneration.

We are—

(1) Better housed.

(2) Better clothed.

(3) Better fed.

(4) Better educated.

(5) Better informed.

(6) Farms are more productive.

(7) Crops are produced more easily.

(8) We have better implements and agencies.

(9) Our women have less drudgery.

Truth compels us to recognize great advances in general conditions of country life.

(3) *It is not rural depopulation.*

This is serious, but not the problem.

It is not the country people who are filling up the cities.

City growth has four factors—

(1) Incorporation.

(2) Natural increase.

(3) Migration from the country.

(4) Immigration.

Incorporation is inconsequential.

Natural increase is about 20%.

Immigration 65% to 70%.

Rural migration only 10% to 15%.

More farmers move to new localities and to new agricultural districts than to cities.

Again, we cannot hope to stop migration to cities, why?

Because the farmer produces more than the family needs—by better methods, he may double his productive capacity, in which case he can supply the needs of double the number, and some members of the family are crowded out.

It is not a question of increasing production.

This will not solve the rural problem, unless by making more money it means—

- (1) Higher standard of living.
- (2) Better education of the children.
- (3) Improvement in the methods of living.

Market co-operation and buying and selling are important, but we must remember—

- (1) There is nothing critical in our present methods.
- (2) We are not threatened by famine.
- (3) We are not nearing bankruptcy, and yet the problem has not solved itself.

Now then, the real positive problem, the real centre and essence of the rural problem, in my opinion, is the necessity of securing the establishment of a *new point of view*, a wider and more vital outlook on the part of the residents of the rural region.

We want new ideas practical enough to attract the enthusiastic.

We want a *new viewpoint*.

In the matter of living, a *new outlook of life itself*—

- (1) Its meaning.
- (2) Its possibilities of enjoyment.
- (3) Its possibilities of satisfaction.

The farmer's life too often is a round of eating, working, sleeping, saving and economizing; also putting up with inconveniences, especially in the house.

What makes unhappy retired farmers?

- (1) They have left their friends.
- (2) They still practise stern economies.

- (3) They still live in houses without conveniences.
- (4) They keep the old rag carpets.
- (5) They attend no theatres.
- (6) They have no specific duties.
- (7) They attend no lectures excepting free ones.

He goes about as a man without friends, or as one with a starved soul.

Transportation, therefore, does not help.

Farmers need to have developed the sentiment that the fullest and most successful life is the one that obtains the greatest and most successful "wants."

THE SOCIAL OUTLOOK.

The farmer lives too much to himself. The social life has never been open to him.

He has never been taught that he was part of a human society, that politics and markets work under strict laws.

He has never had a teacher since childhood, and then probably studied under immature minds.

His universe is bounded by physical laws—sunshine, rain, frost, his own family, and one or two neighbors.

He and Nature count for what he obtains, and there have been no interlopers, excepting on rare occasions, such as when the doctor comes in.

Our farmers fail to recognize—

That they are a great social class, and they have a worth and dignity as such.

Agriculture has a wealth of enormous proportions, and more than one-half of the population.

Its work is worthy.

Its position secure.

Its future promising,

but having no organization, the farmers are victimized—

- (1) By politicians.
- (2) By trusts.
- (3) By railways.
- (4) By middlemen.

What we need is to develop a class consciousness which is self-respecting, powerful for organization purposes in relation to government and market, and which co-operates to secure greater regard for its rights and possibilities.

On the other side, *Social Life is dead*. What is wanted?

Answer:—

RURAL LEADERSHIP.

- (1) How did you get your Farmers' Institutes?
- (2) How did we get Women's Institutes?
- (3) How did we get District Representatives?
- (4) How did we get Experimental Unions?
- (5) How did we get Domestic Science Courses?
- (6) How did we get Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations?

(7) How did we get Agriculture in the Public School?

Certainly not by the initiative of the farmers themselves. Then leaders must be found, if talents are to be discovered and put to work. There is plenty of natural ability in the country, but no method of bringing it out. We must tackle the school—

- (1) The building.
- (2) The grounds.
- (3) The teacher.
- (4) Continuation classes.
- (5) Consolidation—one teacher cannot know everything.

This permits of real teaching to the older boys and girls—Literature, Science, Art, Economics, Agriculture, Domestic Science and Manual Training.

The ignorance of our young people to-day is lamentable.

PROFESSOR REYNOLD'S EXPERIMENT.

Notes re examination of short course class, Macdonald Institute.

Before any teaching was given to the class, and without notice, the following questions were written on the board and the class given plenty of time to write the answers:—

- (1) Name the authors of the following selections:

In Memoriam, Childe Harold, Paradise Lost, Ivanhoe, Sartor Resartus, To a Skylark ("Hail to thee, blythe spirit"), The Mill on the Floss, Evangeline, Recessional, Vanity Fair, David Copperfield, Sesame and Lilies, The Deserted Village, Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard, The Seats of the Mighty, The Sky Pilot, Lead Kindly Light.

- (2) What, where, and for what noted are the following:—

Sudbury, Prince Rupert, Esquimalt, Louvain, Gallipoli, Lemberg.

- (3) Name the Premiers of any six of the Provinces of Canada.

To question No. 1, I received answers all the way from nothing to 80%, with an average of 30% for a class of 21.

To question 2, the value of the answers varied from nothing to 72% with an average of 21%.

The class did fairly well on Canadian points, but were completely at sea with respect to the three European points. The nearest approach to a correct answer was "Louvain" was a place in France where a great battle had recently been fought, and Gallipoli was an island off the east coast of Scotland where the Germans had a submarine base.

(3) The answers to the third question were almost entirely a complete failure. Out of the 126 names that might have been mentioned by the candidates, only seven were correctly given. Six students named Mr. Hearst as Premier of Ontario, three of them spelling Hearst H-u-r-s-t, and one named Mr. Sifton as Premier of Alberta. One candidate stated that Sir James Whitney was Premier of Ontario, and another stated that Borden was Premier of Ontario, and Hughes, Premier of United States.

Our object in giving these questions was to find out, if possible, the mental alertness of the class in matters of general information, such information as could be gathered by reading the current papers, provided they were alert enough to want to know. I have no reason for supposing this class is in any way inferior in intelligence or attainments among the girls in Ontario. I find by looking over their applications, that they are all from Ontario, twelve from the farms in Ontario, two from cities, and seven living in towns and villages. Their educational status varies from High School Entrance to Junior Matriculation and Normal Entrance, including a Business Course for one, and for others various Ladies' Colleges."

PRACTICAL APPLICATION.

It seems to me that if we are to give vocational direction in rural schools, then we must introduce the three "R's" of rural life:—

- (1) Agriculture.
- (2) Mechanics (farm).
- (3) Household Science.

(1) Agriculture. Teachers should take courses at the Ontario Agricultural College, then use what they can in the schools.

2) They should take a course in Farm Mechanics, and set the boy to work making—

- (1) Cold frames.
- (2) Rope knotting and splicing.
- (3) Making split-log drags for mud roads.
- (4) Trap nests.
- (5) Bird houses.
- (6) Flower boxes.
- (7) Poultry houses, or anything else.

(3) The girls should be taught to sew and to cook. Sewing in school *and* as homework. Cooking in school, *or* as homework.

A lesson set on Friday for Saturday, housework in the home kitchen, and samples brought to school on Monday, has met with good results.

Yes, we must train the eye and the hand at the same time, and try our best to develop leadership wherever we find it. We must stop picking out all the bright scholars and turning their attention to the professions. We must encourage them to stay in the country, and to that end we must, as far as in us lies, give them the very best instruction we can in Literature, Agriculture, Farm Mechanics and Domestic Science, but, above all, we must teach them to respect their calling, always placing before them the possibilities of life in the country, as compared with the necessary bare conditions where brick and stone and cement play so large a part in the formation of cities.

ORAL COMPOSITION.

J. A. HILL, PH.B., PRINCIPAL, FRANKLAND SCHOOL, TORONTO.

Experience and extended observation assure me that no subject of the school curriculum adheres more closely in its study to the two most important principles of Education than does the subject of Oral Composition, viz: That throughout youth, as in early childhood, and in maturity, the process should be one of self-instruction; and that the mental action induced by this process should be, throughout, intrinsically that of a pleasing character.

If progression from simple to complex, and from concrete to abstract, be considered the essential requirements in Education, as dictated by abstract psychology, then do these requirements that knowledge be self-mastered and pleurably mastered, become the fitting tests by which we may measure how fully the dictates of psychology are being complied with and fulfilled, in the study of Oral Composition.

Here the pupil is his own arbiter, under the wise guidance of the teacher, and searches with intense interest and delight, the home, the school, and the public library, for information pertaining to his subject of composition. And as he succeeds, from day to day, in adding to present knowledge, he gains confidence and receives fresh impulses that will fit him more fully for the duties of after-life; and in the meantime, he is becoming better prepared to attack the difficulties of his other studies with a courage that insures conquest.

Just in proportion as education is made a process of self-instruction, and by consequence a process of pleasurable instruction, so will the desire to gain knowledge continue when the pupil has passed beyond the threshold of the school-room. When the acquisition of knowledge has been rendered habitually gratifying, as we find it in Oral Composition, then will there be as prevailing a tendency to continue in the acquisition of knowledge without superintendence, as when under superintendence.

Any piece of knowledge that the pupil has himself acquired, any problem which he has himself solved, becomes by virtue of the conquest, much more thoroughly his than it could otherwise be. The preliminary activity of mind which his success implies, the concen-

tration of thought necessary to it, and the excitement consequent on his triumph, conspire to register all the facts in his memory, in a way that no mere information heard from a teacher, can be registered. And when, as in Oral Composition, the individual, personal research of the pupil has been characterized as one of pleasure, we may rest assured that the proper course is pursued and suitable methods adopted in this department of the pupil's education.

The study of Oral Composition develops courage in the pupil; "perseverance through failures"; patient concentration of the attention—the very characteristics that after-life requires. The individual, independent activity of the pupil, as herein necessarily exercised, is of much greater importance than the ordinary busy officiousness of many who assume the office of educators. The wisest charity of the teacher is to help the pupil to help himself. The child that has been bolstered up and levered throughout his schooldays is seldom good for much in a crisis in after-life, but looks around for something to cling to, or lean upon. If the prop is not there, down he goes. Through the study of Oral Composition, the pupil is trained to self-reliance; and through its necessary independent research, he masters knowledge that will fortify him for the emergencies of life.

Many a man has been handicapped through life by being unable to express himself intelligently, and intelligibly, through the want of the help, the practice of this study would have given; and he has been compelled to struggle on, devoid of one of the fundamental requirements of a liberal education—the ability to express himself clearly and concisely.

This phase of education has not been given the attention that it merits; and the consequence is that men and women graduates of our colleges, normal schools and even universities are unable to respond to a toast, and become almost paralyzed when asked to express their opinions on any public question of the day. This deplorable want is recognized more fully to-day than ever before, and the alleviation of the heavy handicap, imposed thereby, is the desideratum of the study of Oral Composition. That which trains a person to speak well, to think clearly and readily, to rely solely on self, to face an audience without fear and trembling, and to command its attention and merit its applause, surely is a source of power

that cannot fail in the many emergencies of life, if practised in youth. A subject that can be correlated advantageously with Nature Study, History, Literature, and Geography, that has a corresponding reciprocal effect for good on the other members of the class, and furnishes increased facility in the training of the memory to greater efficiency, is well worthy of the continuous efforts and the abiding sympathy of the teacher.

Now, just a word or two as to method: Find the boy's hobby and encourage him to talk about it. Let the pupils choose their own subjects, only suggesting to *assist* them.

At first, let the talks be very short, gradually lengthening them as the child gains confidence.

Encourage series of talks, at first probably only a sentence or two, next time reviewing and adding to it. Commend every effort. Make the criticisms in writing for the pupil. Tell the class what is especially good, but point out the mistakes to the pupil only.

When an announcement is to be made to the class, if possible, let a pupil do it. It helps him to gain confidence.

Encourage pupils to help one another and to be careful to give sympathetic attention when one of their number is speaking.

Give required suggestions as to the varied sources of information pertaining to the subject chosen by the pupil.

When opportunity occurs, when a parent, a minister, a trustee, or a friend is visiting your room, ask for a volunteer to entertain the visitor. You will, forthwith, have a dozen or more, anxious to be assigned the honored and coveted desk.

Thus may a good work be carried on which will finally crown your guidance and help, with unbounded success, in developing, in the pupil, a power that will be ready to aid him in the hour of need.

CADET WORK IN OUR SCHOOLS.

MR. W. F. MOORE, PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL, DUNDAS.

Mr. President and Fellow-Teachers,—I am pleased to have been asked to speak to you to-day on Cadet Work in Our Schools. I know that we are not all of the same opinion in regard to the merits of military drill and discipline. For years, there have been strong mutterings of discontent over the militarism of Prussia, and long before the present war broke out those expressions of discontent reached Canada, and many persons were impressed with the arguments against anything of a military nature. Let us give the question some investigation. In Prussia, the purpose of the army was to dominate—the state, the government, the schools, the church—with the one idea, that the army was the only thing of real importance in the country and to the nation. Girls and women were taught that the great purpose of their lives was to be the mothers of soldiers. Every young man was supposed to spend so many years in a military training school; the only ones exempt from this training were the physical and mental defectives. There were strong objections to the scheme, and those objections were given voice by public lecturers. The newspapers of Canada, and ministers, protested strongly against the military spirit being introduced into our schools and colleges. These criticisms and objections were perfectly justifiable in Germany, where the principle of military drill was carried to a dangerous degree. Let us examine why, in Canada, the same objections do not and should not exist. The drill is here used for a very different purpose. Here a young man is a student, and a cadet afterwards; there he is a cadet or soldier and a student in the time he can spare from his military duties. Teachers and military authorities in Canada look upon drill only as a means to an end. What is the purpose and aim of drill in our schools?

1. The drill gives a promptness of obedience and action that can be secured in no other way. When the well-known whistle is blown, the boys fall in quickly, quietly and orderly. The lesson commences, and there is a healthy desire created to be sharp and prompt in performance. The whole corps becomes possessed of it, for one or more making mistakes will throw confusion into the

whole movement, which is strongly resented by those who have not made the mistakes.

2. The boys learn to be respectful. I am sure that many of you will agree that proper respect is something in which the Canadian and indeed the American youth is sadly lacking. What can be nicer than to see the manly way a cadet will salute the masters of the school, as they meet each other on the street? And this salute to the masters is quite frequently extended to the ministers and Sunday School teachers and to others.

3. It gives a boy a good carriage. Watch a number of young cadets walking down the streets of your city. I think I could go out on the playgrounds here in front of the University and pick out the lads who are under good military training.

4. It builds a boy up. The drill for cadets is not all military; it should be largely physical. Even the drill for our soldiers is largely physical. It straightens the back, rounds out the chest, the feet are picked up, not trailed; the eyes are to the front, not on the ground; the body does not sway from side to side, neither does it jerk forward and back in a turkey movement.

It is worth while to stand on a public platform at the close of an entertainment, when the National Anthem is being sung, to see the little chaps, scattered here and there—and oh, how easily you may pick them out—to see them coming to attention. No putting on of overcoats, or fumbling for a cigarette; but the little chaps set an example that might well be followed by all present.

What think you, ladies and gentlemen, caused recruiting to meet with such glorious results in such centres as Toronto, Hamilton, Ottawa? I ascribe it to the spirit created by the Cadet Corps. I am sure that I am right in this opinion. I have personal reason to know it. On the blood-stained fields of Belgium and France, many of the brave boys to whom I taught the rudiments of drill and more than the rudiments of rifle shooting, have laid down their young lives in defence of their King and country. They would not be denied.

This spirit is growing; let us fall into line. Over 120 School Boards in the Province have petitioned the Minister of Education to introduce drill into our schools. On Saturday, March 10th, Sir Wm. Hearst and his Cabinet received a deputation on the matter. The personnel of the deputation was as varied as it was distin-

guished—religious, philanthropic, patriotic, educational, literary, political, financial and industrial. Colonel Merritt was the chief speaker. He quoted from Commodore Jarvis, saying that the improvement in the bearing and physique of 160 boys who had had less than three months' training was simply wonderful. Here are a few of the good things then said by the various speakers:

Col. Merritt: "No Canadian was too young or too unimportant to begin to learn how sacred was the duty of maintaining a well-trained physique, that could, in every particular, answer readily the promptings of an alert intelligence." Mrs. Gooderham, I.O.D.E.: "Ontario had the opportunity of honoring herself by taking the lead and showing the way for the rest of the Dominion." Sir Edmund Walker: "After this war we want to fill Canada with people who will be able to boast that they had a share in this war. We cannot do any greater service to the country than to cause our boys to wear the uniform for a time, learn politeness and discipline." Bishop Sweeney: "The development of physique and upright bearing, the subjection to command, and the demand for instant obedience, the mental training that makes for precision, punctuality and self-respect, all are clearly involved in the word—Drill." Canon McNab: "The co-operative activity of Drill, making, as it does, a call upon both body and mind at the same time, inspires, as nothing else will, a true ideal of the social organism, where body, mind and heart work together for the well-being of the individual and, through him, of the whole nation." Sam Landers, labor leader: "The rank and file of labor men are in favor of it."

Sir Wm. Hearst, in replying, said the matter they had presented should receive the best attention of the Government. The youth of the country should be trained, not only to cherish high ideals, but also to be physically fitted to back up these ideas, if challenged. At present I am not in favor of compulsory military drill in our schools. For this reason: Probably not one-fifth of the teachers are qualified to undertake it. Military drill is an education in itself, and time and skill are required to secure it. Neither do I think it ever would be well to make it compulsory. I think that military drill is applicable only to urban centres, where enough boys can be secured to make a Cadet Corps. It may be logically argued that if military drill is what I and others have said of it, that it should be good for the girls as well as for the boys. The sex problem here must be

considered, also the object and aim of the drill. With the boys we look to the future, when the boys may, as now, be called upon to serve their country. Then a knowledge of drill and rifle shooting is a great preparation. What, then, shall we do for the girls? Give them the Stratheona Physical Drill, which, indeed, is the great body-builder. All of the teachers take a certain amount of this drill at the Normal Schools, and all are, or should be, qualified to teach it. The Stratheona exercises have a financial side to them, for if your county, town or city is organized, and a report sent in, a good cheque will be sent back to your county, not by the Ontario Government, but by the Stratheona Trust, of which Dr. J. L. Hughes is the Secretary. If you wish to organize, do so through your county or other conventions, and all the information will be forwarded by him to you on application.

To form a Cadet Corps at your schools, application for permission to do so should be sent to the Minister of Education for transmission to the Minister of Militia and Defence. The trustees of the school will be required to give an undertaking that they will be responsible for rifles and equipment supplied to the cadets:

A belt and Stetson hat will be supplied to each cadet.

Ross Cadet rifles will be supplied; 50 rounds of .22 ammunition will be annually supplied.

Easdale targets in sufficient quantity.

The Dominion Government will pay to the instructor \$1 per cadet on inspection, or others satisfactorily accounted for.

Fifty dollars will be paid to the school for a Cadet Corps which passess a successful inspection.

The Dominion Act for regulation of minimum size of Cadet Corps differs materially from the Provincial Act. Dominion Act is by far the better. It is: Not fewer than 20 boys, who shall be at least 12 years of age, and not more than 18.

The Provincial Act says that the ages shall be 14 to 18. It is difficult to get 20 boys in a public school who are over 14 years of age; they are generally in the High School by that time. I have taken up the matter with Dr. Colquhoun to have the Provincial Act made the same as the Dominion Act. It would be very much in favor of the town and large village schools. Cities can always manage it. They frequently have their Fifth classes.

I wrote Dr. Colquhoun a short time ago, and asked him if it was intended to have summer schools to train instructors. He replied that the matter was being considered, and was quite probable.

How much time should be spent on drill? I think that once a week, commencing, say at 3.00, and continuing to 4.30. Commence it in school hours, so that no boy shall be able to make the excuse that he has to get away to do errands or deliver papers.

If possible, have the rifle shooting out-of-doors. This might not be possible in cities, but in towns and villages it always is.

The present drill book, as used for the training of our soldiers, is unsuitable for Cadets. A Cadet Drill Book should be prepared by some competent instructor. The amount of drill contained should be not more than what could be fairly well mastered in 12 or 15 lessons. Again, I am thinking of town and village schools, which the pupils generally leave before they are 14 years of age.

*THE MEDICAL EXAMINATION OF RECRUITS—SPECIAL
POINTS OF INTEREST TO TEACHERS AND PARENTS.*

JAS. W. BARTON, M.D., PHYSICAL DIRECTOR, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

In presenting this paper, I wish to state emphatically that it is not in a spirit of criticism, but that these mistakes or omissions of the past may be rectified. This war has taught us many things, in our own homes, in our own hearts, and so, naturally, also in our public capacities.

The examination of the recruit was perhaps hurried for the first contingent, and many friends of the local commander, or the physician, were sent forward, without proper examination, from the smaller centres. In Toronto, also, we likely made mistakes; but our percentage of rejects of enlisted men has been lower than that of any other centre in Canada.

Although I have been examining men for over twenty years, and with more attention to detail than that required for the examination of the recruit, nevertheless, the lessons that came home to me during the latter examination were nothing short of astounding.

The examination proper of the recruit was, to my mind, businesslike.

First, before removing the clothing, the nose and throat were examined. Many candidates went no further. The number with diseased tonsils, pyorrhœa, adenoids and chronic nasal catarrh was astonishing. After removing the clothing, the height and weight were taken, and then the candidate came before the examiner again.

The eyes were then tested, and the hearing. The chest was measured—normal, then deflated and inflated. Then the lungs and heart were examined, then test made for hernia or rupture, then the spine, legs and feet, the movement of arms and legs.

Now, what were the lessons we learned?

First, as we looked into the mouth and saw diseased tonsils and decaying teeth, it was not hard to realize why rheumatism and indigestion are so prevalent. Tonsils that give evidence of annual attacks, as regular as winter itself. Why will parents allow their children to go year after year with their tonsils untreated? Why

will teachers allow the same condition to persist during the child's attendance in their rooms? These glands are simply poison centres which send into the system, daily, a tremendous amount of septic matter. Nature does her best and accommodates herself by fighting the condition as much as possible; but the dose is often too large for her to combat, and disease and distress ensue. And adenoids, which should not persist after early infancy, were found in many adults. With the breathing apparatus hindered by adenoids and tonsils, the small or immature chest was very frequently the natural sequence.

A teacher or parent that can see a child with a typical adenoid expression, and showing lack of concentration, and takes no steps to correct the same, is falling far short of his or her duty, not only in so far as the child's health is concerned, but also from the ordinary school standpoint; because that child, from repeated colds, lack of concentration, and insufficient lung capacity, will gradually drop back in the class standing.

The matter of the teeth loomed very large, and rightly so. That oft-told story of the man who, having been turned down on account of bad teeth, stated that he wanted to fight the Germans and not eat them, amused a great many people. But what is the truth of the matter? Thousands of men were turned down because of bad teeth in the first contingent. I myself would send a sergeant down the line of men waiting to be examined, and at least seven in twenty never came before me because the condition and number of the teeth were not up to requirements. And what were these terrible requirements? Simply, that on at least one side of his mouth a man must have two teeth—one upper and one lower—opposed to one another. Why? Because some "chew" ability was essential in active service. Indigestion in various forms was quite evident in the majority of these cases, although I must admit that many fine specimens of manhood were turned down. A man, on active service, without teeth with which to chew his food—the ordinary rations—is not a safe risk for the Government. And why did such a condition exist? Because teeth, in past decades, had been extracted, rather than treated and preserved. It seemed the proper thing, especially to Old Country parents, to have their children's teeth extracted when they began to decay. It was nothing short of criminal, in so far as

the child was concerned; and, as I said before, thousands of men were turned down at the beginning of the war.

If any plea were needed for dental inspection in schools, the above would be all-sufficient.

And the eyes. Thousands were turned back on account of poor eyesight, as almost 50 per cent. of rejects were from defective vision. And the remarkable part of the matter was that many of the men and boys thought their eyes were all right until the test was made. They admitted having frequent headaches, but never even thought that these might possibly be caused by eyestrain.

It is not hard for a parent or teacher to recognize short-sightedness or astigmatism. And these conditions can be helped, early, and easily. Hundreds of our boys and men would have passed the test had simple measures been taken by parents and teachers. Proper fitting glasses for varying periods would have brought up many to the required standard.

The number of cases of spinal curvature was fairly large. Most of the cases that caused rejection were known to have been observed, in the recruit, when he was a boy at school, but nothing was done.

I'm very glad to see so much overhead apparatus in the playgrounds, as this form of exercise is a great factor in preventing spinal curvature.

Any teacher or parent should be able to recognize spinal curvature, and simple exercises of hanging by the hands, on a bar or rings, will correct the trouble, when the patient is young.

Then as to the chest. I believe this one matter of small chest aroused more resentment within me, than perhaps any other one thing. To think that any Canadian man, or grown boy, could not measure up to the low requirement of chest measurement. The boy was usually one whose parents would not allow him out to play, when he was young, and absolutely forbade athletics when he grew older. His chest was the same as regards ratio of width to depth as when he was a baby. The chest of a baby is about as wide as it is deep. As the child grows and develops, the width gradually becomes larger than the depth, until, at the adult stage, the proportion is as 10 to 7.

What did we find? Most of the men and boys with small chests did not have this ratio, but more like 10 to 8 or 10 to 8.5. In other

words, their chests were immature or undeveloped, more like the "baby" chest. We were unable to take the recruit with the small chest, unless he was about eighteen years of age, when the belief that the training would develop him, permitted him to pass.

The parent who does not want his boy to climb a tree or a fence, to play baseball or football, is making a terrible mistake in so far as the boy's physique is concerned. In examining these chaps, I would say: "I suppose you never went in for athletics?" And the answer was invariably: "No." "Why?" "Oh, the folks wouldn't let me. They were afraid I'd get hurt." That parent, who is responsible, has denied his boy the opportunity of acquiring the physique of a man—a man fit to do his bit in the defence of his country. And after all, the defence of his country should make the heart of every boy and man a mainspring of courage.

At this time, when our country has been at war for three years, it seems a long way back to peace times and military conferences, in those times. And members of the Educational Association, I wish to state here that I was at two conferences at Ottawa, and what was the keynote of both conferences? Preparation for war? Training for the invasion of an enemy country? No! Not one word, in all the speeches, voiced such a sentiment. But the keynote was always, and ever, "To train the boy so that he will be fit, and ready, to defend his country." What if a boy or a man be loyal, if he has neither the physique nor the training with which to defend his country—"his own, his native land"?

That is not all. A man's courage is not measured by the size of his chest or the muscles of his arms, but these very athletic sports that would have made that parent's boy fit to defend his country are the very things needed to beget courage. So, perhaps, the least valuable thing—that is, his chest development—is, notwithstanding, keeping from him the opportunity of defending his country. The boy learns to take his "knocks." He will stand up for himself. He will be less of a coward.

Now, many a boy who has not gone into athletics is as brave as the athletic boy; but he is the exception. Why? Because the athletic boy has matched his muscle, skill, and nerve against other boys, and has learned to know that it is what is expected of him. In other words, it is a part of his training. I believe that we are 50

per cent. of what we inherit and 50 per cent. of what we acquire. And further, the boy who goes into athletics and pastimes acquires not only the necessary chest—(and of the thousands I have examined for overseas service I have yet to get an athlete with a chest too small)—but he acquires this courage-training that is worth more to him, as a man, than perhaps any other one thing.

It is as natural for boys to climb and play as it is for them to eat. Most parents realize this, as they have vision enough to understand that if their boy is to take his place in the world, meet its difficulties, fight for his rights, and support his family, he must be enured to hardship and danger.

I have so often seen the boy at preparatory school too timid to box or play football. In fact the boy would be "backed up" by his parents, in the matter, as they did not wish him to get hurt. However, the masters encourage, even the youngest, to box and play football. And what is the result? The timid boy learns how it feels to get his nose bloody, his head bumped, or his shin barked. There is nothing, perhaps, that helps the boy in sticktoitiveness like the athletic games. He learns to take his knocks and his defeats, because they come to every boy. And the unselfishness begotten in these games is a training in itself. The self-control, also, is worth a broken nose, arm or leg, in the training of the boy to be a real man. And, last, but not least, the integrity of a man is developed, very often, in the athletic field. We have it from the president of a large bonding company that boys and young men, who went into athletics, were better risks, and were more able to resist temptation, than those who did not.

You will pardon my plea for athletics, to which I have devoted my life thus far. But when I saw hundreds of boys and young men rejected because of small chests, not one of whom had gone in for athletics, I felt that I was not as guilty as I might have been in so far as boys and young men not being fit for service was concerned.

One point more. You and I may yet see athletics on the college curriculum as a subject in mental training. An intricate offensive play in football or baseball which is met by an equally intricate defensive play, calls for quickness and accuracy of thought and action equal to those of the problems in other branches of study. I make this plea, here, for athletics and sports, because they mean so much to the boy and the man. And the teacher or parent who

does not encourage them deprives a boy not only of the greatest factor in begetting courage and self-reliance, but may be depriving him also of his chance to join a militia unit to defend his country, owing to his poor physique.

Then, as we think further about the chest, there is the boy who has had pneumonia or pleurisy. Sometimes "patches," as we call them, remain, and so impede respiration that the boy is not able to show the required expansion. How does the parent and the teacher figure in this proposition? The parent should be able to recognize that his boy's chest is not developing, that there is retardation. After a pleurisy or pneumonia, it is the duty of a parent to encourage the boy to play outdoors, as much as possible, as nothing but exercise will strengthen the lungs or break up the pockets or adhesions. A Varsity boy came to me, less than two weeks ago, to see if he was fit for overseas service. He weighed 140 pounds, stripped well; eyes, heart, feet and so forth were all right. When I went over his lungs I found an uneven expansion. I measured both sides and found scarcely any expansion on the right side. I asked him his history and found that the previous year he had contracted pleuro-pneumonia. He had been strapped tightly and had been absolutely quiet, as far as exercise was concerned, for a year. I advised him to work on a farm all summer, and have another examination in the Fall. I am of the opinion that if the boy had been given exercises to make him breathe more deeply, such as slow jogging, he would have broken up those pockets, and would have been fit for active service.

Then the examination of the heart. The ordinary valvular disease, I must admit, is hard to prevent. If, in every infection—rheumatism, measles, scarlet fever, etc.—the boy were kept absolutely in bed during the active infective process, some might be prevented. At least, many dilatations and murmurs would be prevented. But the heart with poor pressure, slight irregularity and slight rapidity, which were the causes of very many rejections, could have been rendered fit for service, in my opinion, by simple exercises, the regular class-work in any gymnasium. This idea, that because a boy's heart beats irregularly, rapidly, or the pressure is poor, that therefore all exercise should be avoided, is one of the big mistakes of modern civilization. I feel very strongly on this, as many of the so-called murmurs and irregularities which caused many rejections

among recruits, cleared up by the simple experiment of having the candidate run around the room once, or taking some other form of exercise. I have no hesitation in saying that we saved at least half a battalion, at the Toronto Recruiting Depot, by this simple experiment. Why? Well, we felt that the more regular exercise that a boy or a man took, the better it would be for his heart.

A little digression here. Many a candidate came in saying that he knew he had "heart disease" because his heart beat so rapidly, and that he got out of breath so easily. And why? Because he had bad teeth, which allowed food to pass into the stomach too soon. Gas formed, pressed against the diaphragm, and thus against the heart, interfering with its action. A dental plate, or the filling of some teeth, has been the means of removing this form of "heart disease."

Two young men, chums from the same tent, were admitted to our hospital, about one month ago, with influenza. They both left the hospital the same day. One walked out; the other was taken out in a casket. Why? Simply because the latter had a heart that gave out; its muscular power was below par—no valvular disease—just weak muscle. Those simple signs, cold hands and feet, cold hanging on for weeks, call for the attention of the parent and the teacher. The boy may have any of those diseases that call for resisting power in the body—pneumonia, typhoid fever, appendicitis—and a strong heart may pull him through. What will strengthen that heart? Exercise, again, and nothing but exercise. The parent or the teacher who denies play to a boy, or even who does not encourage play, is not fair to the boy, nor to the country.

And then varicose veins. What are varicose veins? Simply a permanent dilatation of a vein. At least a battalion of men, in Toronto alone, have been lost to the service by this condition. And the cause of it has been, so frequently, the tight, round garters that boys wear just above the knees. This is the initial cause which predisposes. Standing too long, heredity, and violent exercise, or work, may be the immediate cause. Parents should see to it that if round garters are worn, they are not too tight.

And then the feet. Thousands of our men and boys have been turned down on account of their feet—most of them on account of "flat" feet. What is the cause of it, and can it be prevented? The cause of it is, usually, standing for hours, which keeps the muscles

and ligaments on the stretch. Can it be recognized early? Yes. Can it be cured? Yes. And yet thousands of our men were lost to us in overseas service from this one defect.

How can it be recognized, early? Simply by the tired feeling so frequently noted—a tiredness and ache across the arch, with pain up into the calf of the leg.

I have often detected the real flat foot by examining the boots of the recruit, as he usually wears down the inner side of the sole and the heel.

Many people look upon the condition as hopeless. Treatment in flat foot is to have proper-fitting shoes. Do not wear ordinary running shoes, or slippers, when standing or walking. Strapping up the feet and getting properly fitted plates will correct a large percentage of cases; and then, simple exercises will strengthen the muscles.

The cases of hammer-toes were very numerous and caused many rejections. What is a hammer-toe? A toe in which the joint has lost its power of movement and has a claw-like appearance. It usually interferes with marching. It is almost invariably caused by tight boots. The lesson is self-evident. The pictures we see in the papers, showing the results of tight boots, do not exaggerate in the least. Tight boots, with pointed toes, are responsible for the loss to Canada of over a battalion of men. Just think of it!

I believe the one great lesson, then, that we, as parents and teachers, have learned, is the old lesson, that the body is the foundation on which we must build. With a strong body, the child can go onward and upward, where'er his ambition leads him. With a weak body, he can only travel as far as his bodily strength will carry him. I like to think of our late Minister of Militia. A man of good brain-power, wonderful will-power, and a body that carried him through a volume of work, in the two years of war, the equal of which has never been seen in this country of ours. We may not see eye to eye with him in many ways, but Canada owes much to his great physical strength, developed on the lacrosse and the athletic field.

I trust that hereafter these bodies of ours, the bodies of our children and pupils, will receive from us the attention they deserve.

And God knows that with the cream—yes, the rich cream—of our manhood gone overseas, it behooves us to conserve that which is left, that the boys of the future may be real men, in the fullest sense of the word.

WILL THERE BE A NEW CANADA?

ARCHDEACON CODY, D.D., LL.D., RECTOR OF ST. PAUL'S CHURCH,
TORONTO.

A literature of reconstruction is being created. There are proposals to reconstruct almost everything under the sun—religion, politics, industry, commerce, education. After the war, it is said, all things will be rebuilt. Let me, therefore, preface my remarks by saying that unless Germany is decisively defeated and through defeat experiences a change of heart, there will be no opportunity of reconstructing anything for the better. All our dreams and hopes of a better world are based on the shattering of our enemy's aims and ambitions. Our immediate duty, therefore, absolutely primary and essential, is to win the war. To this end there must be concentration of energy and consecration of purpose, possessions and persons.

Yet it is legitimate to plan and prepare even now for the future. It is part of the duty of those who are too old, or are unfit, to go to the Front, to learn the lessons of the times, and to apply their learning to planning for the betterment of their country, a country doubly dear through the blood that has been shed in its defence. We may, then, as teachers and thinkers, consider to-day the possibility and probability of the Canada of the future becoming a purer, better and nobler Canada.

Not long ago, the Prime Minister of Great Britain, speaking at Carnarvon, used these words:—

“When the smoke of this great conflict has been dissolved, there will appear a new Britain. It will be the old country still, but it will be a new country. Its commerce will be new, its trade will be new, its industries will be new. There will be new conditions of life and of toil, for capital and for labor alike, and there will be new relations between both of them, and forever. There will be new ideas; there will be a new outlook; there will be a new character in the land. The men and the women of this country will be burnt into fine building material for the new Britain in the fiery kilns of the war. It will not merely be the men who, please God, will come back

from the battlefield to enjoy the victory which they have won by their bravery—a finer foundation I would not want for the new country; but the Britain that is to be will depend also upon what will be done now by the many more who remain at home. There are rare epochs in the history of the world when in a few raging years the character, the destiny of the whole race is determined for unknown ages. This is one.”

These striking words are in large measure applicable to the Canada that is to be. There may be, we trust there will be, a new Canada. The material basis of our national life will be the same; but we look for a new spirit in the lives of our people, supplied through the men who have returned from the cleansing fires of the battlefield, and through those men and women at home who have perceived the meaning of these great days and have gained a vision of the better time that may be ours. Only by a new spirit can there be a new and better Canada.

We sometimes say that the war will alter everything. That is true for all of us in some respects, and for some of us in all respects. But there is a deep sense in which it is true to say that nothing vital will be altered. Human nature, in its tragedy and its glory, will be the same. The moral law will be the same. The fundamental problems of life, which at bottom are moral problems, will be the same.

The better new Canada, the differences for the better everywhere, will not come as a mere matter of course. They must be prayed for, toiled for, planned for, fought for. One writer, with hyperbolical antithesis, has described our possible future as being either Hell or Utopia. Either there will be the same old world on the same old levels, indeed a worse old world on lower levels, marked by such moral reaction and exhaustion as may well be termed “Hell;” or else there will be such an advance to a higher and more ideal world that it may seem to be the realization of the best men’s “Utopia.” If the new is to be the better, this future must be struggled for. With what spirit are we facing the future? What are the ideals of our people? Do we seem to be learning from this awful preceptor of war such lessons as will better fit us to solve the old problems that survive and the new problems that arise from the world situation created by the great cataclysm?

As teachers, we realize afresh the importance of our calling. In

our hands is placed the powerful weapon of education. What lessons can we give to the plastic youth of this generation? We have seen in Germany an awful illustration of the power of education over the minds and bodies of men. We have observed that it can poison the springs of national life; it can alter and lower national ideals; it can create an utterly false conception of the nature of the state and of its relation to other states; it can minister to a colossal national vanity and egotism. Applied with persistence and pedantic pertinacity, education can prove the most formidable engine in the modern world for controlling conduct and swaying purpose. We know now that it does matter what a man believes; indeed, it is the thing that matters most. What a man really believes, makes him and sways his whole career. Our schools have, in view of these considerations, a great opportunity and a great responsibility to teach a sane, a saving, a sacrificial patriotism, and to set forth the terms on which alone a better country can be won.

Sound education is of special value in relation to the present generation of school children, both because they will have added obligations to fulfil by reason of the death of so many of their immediate seniors, and because they will grow up in an altered world. It has been aptly said that whatever we wish to see introduced into the life of a nation must first be introduced through its schools and universities. The new Canada will find many of its creators among the children under your care to-day. Perhaps the children themselves recognize that they are living in a great age, and that they must play a great and noble part in the drama of their country's future history. An inspector of primary schools in old London not long ago examined over 1,300 papers written by boys and girls of 11 years of age on the topic, "How we can help in the war." The gist of the best answers was expressed in this sentence from one of the papers: "We children will have to put this country right after the war; so we must work hard and become well educated." The children of to-day will be the nation builders of to-morrow. The school is the most regular and authoritative channel through which they will receive information, inspiration and direction. You teachers must, therefore, think clearly and study strenuously and live nobly that you may be effective moulders of the new citizens of this Dominion.

Before we can plan for the new Canada, we must have a true

conception of the old Canada which we have inherited. It is a far-stretching land, of vast natural resources, demanding man's toil on every hand. Its people have a worthy national tradition; they possess many virile virtues; they are characterized by stability, resourcefulness and unconventionality. Its democratic constitution has been won by hard struggles in the past. Its inhabitants are separated by distance, race, religion and language; yet the deepest impress on the country as a whole has been made by those of British stock. It has more or less clearly realized its membership in a world-wide political entity—the British Empire; and this has counteracted an inevitable tendency to provincialism. All these factors have constituted a great opportunity. Here in Canada there is full scope for our love of justice, fair play, free speech and democratic advance. Here is a great “land of the second chance.”

If our power to reconstruct a better Canada rests in large part upon the extent to which we have learned the lessons taught by the great upheaval, we shall do well to think these through again. We may enumerate some of them.

1. The war has revealed the extraordinariness of the ordinary man. There is a latent hero in every man. These testing days have shown the bigness of the average man, and alas, too often, the littleness of the officially big man.

2. The war has restored to us a right sense of proportion. We know that physical life and comfort are of infinitely less value than honor, service and patriotism. The supreme things in life are not material things, but the immaterial and spiritual realities of sacrifice for a great cause. In the light of eternal values, we are constrained to ask, not “What can I get out of this by way of selfish gain?” but “What can I give or do for the world's welfare?”

3. The war has given us a fresh realization of the supremacy of persons over things. In the prosperous years of the past, “things were in the saddle and ruled mankind.” To-day, in spite of the machinery so largely used in the struggle, men have entered on a new freedom, because their spirits have been redeemed from the tyranny of things. The great essential of life is that the spirit be quickened, so that we become more abundantly and intensely alive. Ruskin well said: “There is no wealth but life—life with all its powers of love, of joy, of admiration. That country is the richest which nourishes the greatest number of noble and happy

human beings." Fifty years ago the German scientist, Liebig, remarked that "civilization is economy of power, and England's power is coal." "Civilization," retorted Ruskin, "is the making of civil persons."

4. The war has helped the revolt against the tyranny of abstractions, a tyranny whose home is pre-eminently in the land of political tyranny, Germany. In no country is psychology more studied, and in no country is human nature less understood. We sorely needed deliverance from this sway of abstraction and theory. We have largely been set free by the war. Our abstractions are being translated into personalities. We no longer speak of the "British Army" or "The Canadian Militia;" we speak of "our men at the Front." This is a concrete illustration of the change that has come. Right and wrong have no proper moral meaning except when they describe the relations between persons.

5. We have clarified our conception of the State. We believe that its essence is not power, but justice, mercy and mutual service. The State is not something out of which we are to squeeze as much as possible for ourselves or our friends by the use of our votes, but the State stands for certain ideals which we shall maintain, even at the risk of life itself.

6. The war has brought into a clear exposure the opposing principles and vital issues at stake. The material and the spiritual philosophies of life are at death grips. Moral alternations are made more intelligible by being clothed with personality. A civilization based on materialism and egotism will ultimately bring about its own destruction. Nothing less than the present cataclysm could have opened our eyes to see whither we were drifting, and what is the inevitable goal of pursuing material interests without the least regard for the rights and feelings of others.

7. We have learned the essential oneness of all classes of our people. Common sorrows, common anxieties, common achievements, common work together, have created a new spirit of sympathy and brotherhood at home and overseas. Mutual understanding brings mutual respect.

8. We have seen, especially in the Motherland, what speedy and wonderful achievement, can be effected by the action of the State, when all parties work together for the common good. All

private interests must be subordinated to the public safety and welfare. To secure this result there has been an unparalleled extension of the functions of the State.

9. We have had a revelation of the possibilities of power through the more effective organization of existing resources and the combination of State and private enterprise.

10. We have painfully learned the fundamental character of the food supply. We have been faced with the primeval fact that the food question is at the bottom of every other question, big or little, and that society rests on the best use of our land. The plough is our hope. Agriculture is the basal industry.

11. We Canadians have been compelled to have a world outlook, and to share in a world enterprise, and a world policy.

12. Our men have been brought into a fighting alliance with the other parts of the Empire. We realize, as never before, our unity and our responsibilities as sharers in Imperial citizenship.

13. We are getting a sight of a world league of free peoples. Against the enemy of civilization is now arrayed a great brotherhood of democracies, fighting for common and lofty ideals. Herein is the possibility of a future federation of mankind to keep the peace and uphold the humane civilization of the world.

Out of this struggle in due time the world will emerge, poorer and sadder, but it is to be hoped, wiser. The one hope that counterbalances the loss of life and treasure and all the agonies of the struggle, is that these pains are the birth-pangs of a new and better era. This new era will grow out of our best past. On the facts of the past, under the impulse of a new spirit, may the new Canada be erected. Those at home who have learned the lessons of these troublous times, the returned soldiers, and the women now entrusted with the power of the ballot, will hopefully combine to "build Jerusalem, in Canada's green and pleasant land."

In order to solve the problems before us, we must appeal to the latent heroism of every citizen. It is not to an easy, but to a hard task that we are called. Peace is not a negative quantity, the mere absence of war; but a positively interesting and challenging experience. I cannot deal now with our specific tasks, such as the re-absorption of our demobilized soldiers, immigration, employment, internal reconstruction of our political fabric, and our relation to

the Empire. But I would mention some of the great principles according to which I believe the better Canada can be developed.

1. Personality is more vital than property. The soul is of more value than the body. Things have worth only so far as they subserve persons. All organizations and institutions and laws are useless or even harmful unless they minister to the souls of living human beings. The essence of immorality lies treating a person as if he were a mere thing. The test of advancing civilization is increasing regard for personality. In the new Canada we shall place the rights of persons above the rights of property. Industrial organization was made for man, not man for industrial organization. For generations men have been attending mainly to economic results, and leaving the human results to look after themselves. We must in the future place foremost the human, the personal. This principle, if consistently and universally applied, would mean a new Canada.

2. Service, not self-seeking, is the standard of manhood. Life is true and noble in proportion as it is a *ministerium* and not a *magisterium*. He who serves most, lives best.

3. In public life, loyalty to principle must override loyalty to party, if any conflict between the two arise. Party government may be the best available method of conducting our country's affairs, but it is only safe and serviceable as long as it is not supreme. Conscience and principle are the ultimate standards, and demand ultimate loyalty.

4. Production, not speculation, is the true source of wealth. Nothing can take the place of the basic industries.

5. Conservation of wealth, resources and energies must expel the wastefulness for which this continent has been notorious.

6. The prevention of evils is better than their cure. Prophylactic medicine is more useful than therapeutic in every domain of national life. To save and develop the child is more profitable and easy than to reclaim the adult.

7. Formation is greater than reformation. It is better to start things right than to put things right. Herein lies the great function of education. The established system of German education has been distinguished by its extraordinary precision of aim, its high standards of intellectual attainment, its liberal encouragement of

organized scientific research, its wide diffusion and convenience of access. But it has grave defects. It confuses external discipline with personal self-control; it confuses mere regimentation with the corporate spirit; it slays individuality and spontaneity; it organizes men, but does not inspire them; it cultivates them, but does not love them; it makes a mighty State, but neither a democracy nor a church; it construes culture in terms of intellect rather than of character. We must learn the good and avoid the evil in our enemy's system. Efficacy is desirable, but bare efficacy is as unmoral as electricity. The more important consideration is, "To what end is the efficacy directed? In what spirit is it applied?" Our schools must essay the double task of endeavoring to impart both love of knowledge and care for conduct, love of adventure and readiness to endure routine; capacity for individual initiative, and patience in the work of scientific co-operation.

8. There will be a closer combination of State and individual effort. The State may supervise, suggest, even control and direct to a greater extent than heretofore; but the State must not eliminate the spontaneity and initiative of the individual. The future lies neither with an exclusive socialism nor an exclusive individualism, but with a socialized individualism.

Our gallant dead laid down their lives for their country's freedom and future. Are those who survive willing to make their country worthy of this sacrifice? The dead will be commemorated by marble and brass, by monument and window. But they deserve a better memorial even than this. Let us erect as their monument a new and better Canada, purer, chaster, more temperate, more industrious, kindlier, juster, more ready to serve man and to fear God.

THE ALARMING PROBLEM OF THE SUB-NORMAL CHILD.

C. K. CLARK, M.D., LL.D., SUPERINTENDENT, TORONTO GENERAL HOSPITAL.

To those who are carrying on the work of looking after the so-called feeble-minded, the tragedy seems one of the most appalling that the human race has fallen heir to. Misunderstood, driven from pillar to post, condemned to the same punishments as those who have been more fortunate in their birth, if not in their environment—these weaklings are too often the victims of a system devoid of sympathy, and one might say, common sense. It is only recently that we have succeeded in getting this community interested, and it will take years of education to bring the public to a complete understanding of the problem. In the meanwhile, those of us who have taken it on ourselves to keep public opinion stirred up, must be content to hear ourselves called sentimentalists, hare-brained reformers, and other unpleasant things; still, that has no effect in the way of preventing us from doing what is a manifest duty. Study this question in the schools of experience, which I have attended for more than forty years, and you will learn of man's inhumanity to man, and realize that some of our so-called civilization has failed to rectify wrongs which are obvious to those who are familiar with them. The trouble is that the majority of unthinking people are only too willing to set themselves up as authorities on all affairs of the mind, and to constitute themselves expert psychiatrists and psychologists without the slightest hesitation. Twelve tried men and true are supposed to be able to decide on the insanity or sanity of any individual, and Jack is as good as his master when it comes to dealing with grading mentality all the way from idiocy to genius.

Take a day off and study law as administered in a Police Court, and see how much consideration the individual receives, and then let me tell you how this system works out. The officials are generally excellent and intelligent men; but there is no attempt made to dispense what should be scientific justice rather than a species of justice founded on the presumption that people are just as much alike as the bricks in a wall—sixty cases decided in sixty minutes, or something like that.

The same criticisms must apply to the school system, which is not interested in the individual so much as in the average standard pupil, if such a pupil exist. Teachers are not to blame because they have not been taught even the first principles of abnormal psychology, and they receive but little help from the psychological frills which adorn the curriculum.

Now the abnormal child is the greatest clog the ordinary school has imposed on it, not only that the whole school suffers from his presence, but the defective or insane child himself is apt to be unfairly and harshly treated by teachers who are not informed of the defect or disease of their pupil. A few days ago a clergyman attended a clinic for the feeble-minded, and at its completion said, "I had no idea that this problem was so intricate, so variegated, so far-reaching. I am simply appalled and confused beyond measure by it." Now, what had happened? There were on this occasion, some twenty-two children, between the ages of sixteen and infancy, examined. The majority were feeble-minded; some were insane, some backward owing to unfortunate environment, others quite normal, with a mark of interrogation after them. To show that it required a well-cultivated sense of discrimination, to say nothing of a wide experience, I shall give some of the details of what happened.

The first patient was a girl, of fifteen, pretty, attractive, but absolutely without any sense of morality. She had come from the Juvenile Court, had proved quite unmanageable at home, and already had strayed from the path of virtue. A careful physical examination revealed the fact that she had many of the stigmata of degeneracy, was in fact hopeless from a social standpoint. The average observer would say, "What an attractive, pleasant girl!" The trained observer would soon recognize that the only hope for this child was to be cared for in an institution, for life, where she would be happy and safe. Turn her at liberty, and at once the prostitutes would receive another recruit. At school she had reached the Senior Second book.

No. 2 had almost a similar history. She was a typical English defective, sent out to Canada to develop what nature and heredity had denied her—a properly developed brain. She, too, was already on the road to prostitution.

No. 3, a girl of fifteen, Junior Second book, already had married two soldiers, both alive at present. One wonders how clergymen

could be found to undertake the wedding ceremony, when the girl is obviously under age, and just as obviously defective. This girl was actively syphilitic and doubly a menace to society.

No. 4, a child of four, already insane as a result of syphilis handed down by her parents. Fortunately, this poor little wreck will not live long.

No. 5, a defective woman, whose criminal career was shocking; syphilitic of course, and living with a defective man of worse type than herself; both so-called dope fiends.

Many of the twenty-two were harmless defectives; two or three were anti-social on account of unsatisfactory home conditions, foolishly indulgent parents, etc. Two were cases of developing dementia præcox, and although this was only an average clinic, it shows that the problem was not one to be dealt with by anyone untrained. So, after all, the practical sentimentalist has some arguments that will take a lot of confronting.

Now, when you recollect that among the average school children between two and three per cent. are defective, it will be apparent that these children must be detected and provided for, as they hinder the development of the normal pupils and are not receiving the treatment best for themselves. Not only that, they are a distinct menace to the morality of the school if they evidence sexual precocity and abnormality, as is so often the case; one or two defective children can and do often corrupt a whole school community. The instances which have come under the observation of the clinic during the last two years are striking enough to serve as object lessons to the whole teaching profession.

Without going into unpleasant details, it is enough to say that on each occasion, one or two defectives contaminated the whole moral atmosphere, and this moral degeneration must of necessity have its effect on the future life of those who came under its pestilential influence.

We are the dumping ground for large numbers of defective and degenerate people of the Old World; 20 per cent. of the immigrants would be a fair percentage to have on the records of our Psychiatric Clinic, Toronto General Hospital; whereas actually 54 per cent. are found.

In a centre as large as Toronto or Hamilton, the appointment of an experienced psychiatrist who will do the weeding out is the proper solution, and he can, without much difficulty, decide on the cases to be removed from the classes. The real problem does not occur with the children whose defects stand glaringly patent to the ordinary observer, but with the high-grade defectives, or morons, as they are called by American writers, and the early cases of dementia præcox, who are never detected by the teacher, and who invariably resents the remarkable behavior of these diseased children.

In smaller cities, towns, villages and the country, the work of weeding out might be done by properly trained psychiatrists appointed by the Provincial Department of Education, the selection of such officials being made without the slightest regard for their political pull. In other words, such men or women should have the broadest experience and the highest training, and should be well paid. When such children are weeded out, their treatment and care should of course be carefully provided for. Just how that is to be done in the Toronto community will be explained by Dr. Conboy.

*THE PLAN WHICH IS PROPOSED FOR THE CARE OF
THE SUB-NORMAL CHILDREN IN TORONTO.*

F. J. CONBOY, D.D.S., TORONTO, PRESIDENT, ONTARIO ASSOCIATION
FOR THE CARE OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,—At the very outset of my short address this afternoon, may I be permitted to express my pleasure in being privileged to attend this session of the Ontario Educational Association. I have always taken a keen interest in Teachers' Conventions. When a lad at school, it was a matter of great delight to hear that the Teachers of Toronto were to assemble themselves in convention, because that meant that the schools would be closed and we would have a holiday. In later years, when I began to take a greater part in educational affairs, I was just as greatly concerned, but from a different reason. I then realized that conferences of this kind meant, for those who attended, a broader vision, more modern and effective methods, and consequently better and more permanent results. When a teacher comes to the conclusion that he knows everything about his profession worth knowing, when he feels there is nothing to be gained by meeting with his fellows and discussing new and improved methods, that teacher ceases to advance, and must of necessity soon deteriorate.

The modern up-to-date teacher is anxious to obtain knowledge and information upon those subjects and matters which in any way affect his school, and it is to assist in this regard that Dr. Clarke and I appear before you this afternoon.

Recent years have marked a great extension of interest in the occurrence of mental defect. The recognition of such defect as a factor in most social ills, and the proofs of its strongly hereditary nature, are leading to a broader view and a more far-reaching policy among all progressive workers for social betterment.

We now see how inevitably the victims of an unfortunate heredity drift into poverty and crime. We seek to provide for them in proper institutions a special environment where, in place of these dire results, they may live happy and relatively useful lives. But our policy of prevention involves a further and far more valuable result. It is destined to prevent the occurrence of mental defect in

society at large. Since these defectives quite often represent degenerate lines of the human family, we may by segregation of the sexes eliminate these lines and thus greatly simplify the manifold problems which they have occasioned. Accordingly, we are laying more and more stress upon the custodial aspect of these institutions.

Of all the unfortunate dependents with which we have to deal the feeble-minded are the most worthy of our sympathy and help. As we walk up and down the streets of our large city, as we visit the hospitals and charitable institutions, we see many persons in a most painfully distressing condition, and while we have for these a certain amount of sympathy because of their helplessness and suffering, we are nevertheless quite aware of the fact that their calamity is the result of their own carelessness and foolishness. Had they acted wisely, had they observed the ordinary rules of health, they would not have been in their present condition. But not so with the mentally defective; they are not responsible for their unfortunate state; they had no agency or choice in the matter; they have no ability or power to cure or even help themselves; they are absolutely and wholly dependent upon their more fortunate relatives and friends. And how have we treated them?

The majority of these boys and girls have been sent to the Public School, where they have received very little benefit. It is now generally acknowledged that the feeble-minded need special treatment, and that it is unfair, unjust and cruel to strive to force them to accomplish the impossible and to hold their own in comparison and in competition with normal children.

The teachers do their best, but under conditions existing in the ordinary classroom, and with a course of study arranged for normal pupils, neither extra time and attention, nor the most sympathetic and kindly treatment, to say nothing of criticism, scolding and corporal punishment (which, I am pleased to say, is a thing of the past, as far as the mentally defective are concerned), can give to these pupils the training they need, in order that they may live happy and useful lives.

The feeble-minded feel that they are under a handicap and are at a disadvantage, and no matter how hard they may try, they cannot accomplish the tasks, which seem easy to the ordinary pupil; consequently they become discouraged, dissatisfied and unhappy; unfortunately, they are the butt of nicknames, crude jokes, unfair

criticism and cowardly ridicule, on the part of some of their most thoughtless fellow-pupils. They are misunderstood, misjudged, taken advantage of, and disciplined for misdemeanors for which they are not properly responsible; consequently they get to hate school and become truants. Then again they do not receive the protection they so much need. They are weak and easily fall victims to designing people; they are all potential criminals, and when allowed to roam the streets, where opportunities to anti-social acts are always present, they become thieves, incendiaries and criminals.

Unfair to Parents.—The attendance of the feeble-minded at the Public Schools is a source of constant worry and discouragement to their parents. They know that their mentally defective child is not doing well at school; that he is a burden to the teacher and cannot associate as an equal with other pupils; and, worst of all, they are fully aware that he is not receiving that training which will enable him to become fairly self-supporting, and they tremble when they consider what will become of him when he no longer has their protection and support. In the vast majority of cases, the parents become so discouraged that they take the child from school and allow him to roam the streets.

Unfair to Teachers.—In fairness to our teachers, the feeble-minded should be removed from our Public Schools. It is unreasonable to expect a teacher to do successful work if she had from forty-five to fifty normal children and a mentally defective in her class. The feeble-minded child will demand as much time and attention as any four normal pupils. This must be given at the expense of the other pupils in the class, and as the Inspector will insist that the entire class be kept up to standard, it will entail upon the teacher a great deal of extra work and worry. Then add to this the discouragement of finding that after much careful attention and painstaking effort, her work in connection with the feeble-minded child has been a failure.

The mentally defective are nearly always hard to discipline; they cannot be controlled; they cannot be held responsible for their actions, and consequently commit misdemeanors for which it would be cruel to punish them, but which cause disorder and disturbance in the classroom; other pupils take advantage of the leniency shown the feeble-minded and try to do similar things without being disciplined.

The teacher has an added responsibility when the sub-normal girl becomes older, in that she and the principal must protect her from the other pupils, and protect the other pupils from the demoralizing influence of the feeble-minded girl. Then they are also a constant worry in regard to the safety of school property, as many are dishonest and incendiary.

Unfair to Other Pupils.—The existing arrangement of having the sub-normal in the Public School is a distinct detriment to the normal children; for a normal child to be forced to sit near and be associated with a feeble-minded pupil is little short of *criminal*; it may result in *physical, mental and moral degeneracy*. To be placed in such a position that you are forced to be continually watching a feeble-minded person and expecting them to do some irresponsible thing is nerve-racking. It must necessarily take the child's attention away from the school work and result in unsatisfactory educational progress. In some cases the feeble-minded exert considerable influence over certain of their fellow-pupils; they encourage them to neglect their work, to be careless and disobedient and often to become truants. Many are immoral, and some very startling cases of the demoralizing effect of the feeble-minded upon the normal pupils have been proven in connection with the work of the Psychiatric Clinic.

Perhaps I may be able to give you some slight idea of the influence of the feeble-minded upon the normal children by reading the following report which I received from the Clinic:

PSYCHIATRIC CLINIC, TORONTO GENERAL HOSPITAL.

Opened in April, 1914.

From April, 1914, to March 31st, 1917.

Total number who have attended Clinic.....	1,890
Total number under 15 years of age who have attended Clinic	1,026

REASONS FOR ATTENDING CLINIC.

Stealing	405
Setting fire	69
Bodily violence	146
Immorality	62
Truancy and running away from home.....	224
Backward at school	120

1,026

Total number of school age suffering from syphilis.....	62
Total number of school age, sent from the Juvenile Court and diagnosed as feeble-minded	651

Unfair to Taxpayers.—To keep the feeble-minded in the Public School is a poor proposition, financially. Each mentally defective child in the Public School costs the ratepayers directly \$52 per annum; as has been pointed out, they demand as much of the teacher's time and attention as four normal pupils; so we might reasonably claim that each costs the School Board over \$200 per annum. Under any reasonable plan, the cost of educating and training, which might fairly be charged to the School Board, would not exceed \$100. Of course in this amount I do not include the cost of food or clothing, because they are not receiving these things from the School Board under the present arrangement. It can easily be seen that to take the pupils from the Public School and place them in a proper institution would mean a great saving of the people's money from an educational standpoint. Then, when you consider that the money now spent is almost entirely wasted, and that the feeble-minded frequently occasion serious damage to school property, we are convinced that our present method of dealing with the feeble-minded is a very poor business proposition.

What has been the final result of sending the mentally defective to the Public Schools for a time, and then allowing them to roam the streets? To find an answer to this question, we might ask those who conduct and supervise the work of refuges, orphanages and other public charities; those who relieve the destitute, who try to rescue the fallen and reclaim the vicious; those who are judges, magistrates and police authorities, and have to do with criminals; those, I say, who have charge of our charitable and penal institutions—the institutions which swallow up about one-third of our revenue. And what will they say? There is only one answer. We have allowed them to drift until they became ne'er-do-weels, loafers, tramps, paupers, drunkards, incendiary, vicious and criminal. This is the inevitable result; for the mentally defective, left to their own resources, can never be self-supporting; they are always dependent, usually indeed far worse.

Now, what do we propose to do, according to the plan submitted to the Provincial Government, the City Council, the Board of Education and the Separate School Board, and which met with their approval?

(1) The feeble-minded children are to be taken from school and placed upon Farm Colonies. Arrangements have been made for

two Industrial Farm Colonies, one for Boys, on the 2nd Concession of Markham, and one for Girls, on Bathurst Street. These Colonies are within ten miles of the city, and arrangements will be made to have buses meet the Metropolitan car and convey the visitors to the Colony. The buildings will be constructed upon the Cottage Plan, and will be simple, inexpensive, fireproof, and as home-like as possible. Each cottage will accomodate about fifty pupils.

Both of these sites are now owned by the City, and the City Council has consented to set aside a sufficient amount of land for this purpose, to erect the necessary buildings, and to place the Colonies under the Industrial Farm management.

(2) As a large number of pupils will come from the Public Schools, the Board of Education has consented to appoint a Psychiatrist, who will act in conjunction with the Chief Inspector and determine what pupils shall be allowed to attend the Farm Colony, and to contribute \$100 per annum for each pupil sent to the Colony.

(3) The Separate School Board has been urged to make the necessary provision for sending the feeble-minded of the Separate Schools to the Colony also, and pay \$100 per pupil per annum for the maintenance of each.

(4) The Provincial Government having provided in the Auxiliary Classes Act (Clause 13) for a special grant for this purpose, has fixed the amount of the grant at \$50 per annum for each pupil in the institution.,

This, in general, is the plan which has been adopted. I need say nothing in support of an Industrial Farm Colony on the Cottage Plan. It is now regarded by all as the ideal way of building a custodial institution for the feeble-minded. The day of the large building, hard to heat, hard to keep clean, and housing thousands of inmates, is gone forever. No really good institution is now built upon that plan. The simple, cheap cottage, accommodating about 50 pupils, has taken its place.

In regard to the location of the Colonies, there may be some difference of opinion. The extreme sentimentalist may denounce the whole proposition immediately, declaring that the Colonies are to be placed too near the Industrial Farm, that a stigma will be placed upon the institution, and the parents will not allow their children to attend.

But let us not form too hasty a judgment, and before we arrive

at a decision in such an important matter, let us thoughtfully consider the following facts:

(1) That the need for a Farm Colony for the Feeble Minded is extremely urgent.

(2) That the parents of the mentally defective are reasonable people, that they love their children, and will not be deterred by silly sentiment from giving them the treatment which they so much need.

(3) That the men upon the Industrial Farm are human; some of them are the best fellows in the world, but unfortunately are slaves to the drink habit.

(4) That these men would not be allowed upon the Farm Colony except when sent to do a certain work. They would then be supervised.

(5) That the boys upon the Farm Colony will be divided into classes, and under continual supervision, whether at work, at school, or at play.

(6) That there will be other institutions beside the Industrial Farm and the Farm Colony upon this large tract of land. Sites have been already selected for an Aged Men's Home, and an Aged Couples' Home.

(7) That, as the sites are owned by the city, there will be no present financial outlay for land. The city owns 735 acres of land, and as the farm population has decreased over 40% as a result of Prohibition, there is not now a sufficient number of men upon the farm to till the soil. The high-grade mentally defectives can be taught to do farm work acceptably.

(8) The cost of administration and equipment will be greatly reduced. One superintendent, one office-staff, one water-supply system, one sewage disposal plant, one bake-shop, etc., will do for all the institutions.

(9) The different institutions can co-operate and assist each other, and thus save considerable expense. The women and girls can sew and knit, the men and boys manage the farm and supply the vegetables.

(10) The sites are convenient to the city, so that the parents can frequently visit their children.

(11) Working under the Industrial Farm Act, additional land

PLAN PROPOSED FOR CARE OF FEEBLE-MINDED.

can be expropriated if necessary, and money voted if urgently needed, without submitting the matter to the people.

This is the plan on which we intend to make a start in the proper care and treatment of our feeble-minded children. We hope to be able to train the high-grade mentally defectives that they may live happy and fairly useful lives; the low grade will, as formerly, be sent to Orillia. The removal of the feeble-minded from the ordinary class-room will lead to greater efficiency in our schools, because it has been generally recognized that their presence has impeded the progress of the normal children, and that the best possible results have not been obtained.

And now in the closing hours of this great convention may I be permitted to express the sincere wish that you have all received great benefit and profit by your attendance here. I trust that as a result of these meetings you may go back to the places from which you have come, to the schools in which it is your honor and privilege to labor, with a broader vision, a greater enthusiasm and a new inspiration to do better and more efficient work than you have ever done before.

The teachers of this Dominion have a great privilege, opportunity and responsibility in their work of educating and training the boys and girls, who, at the conclusion of this great war, will define the policy and determine the destiny of our country. Our great and outstanding duty at the present time is to increase the efficiency of our school system, and the first step in this direction is the proper care and treatment of the feeble-minded. A great deal has been accomplished in this direction during the past year, but much still remains.

The system which has been planned for the City of Toronto should be applied to the entire Province. A careful survey of the problem from the provincial standpoint should be made, so that it may be determined where the Industrial Farm Colonies should be located. Interest must be aroused and people educated as to the great need. This can best be done by the organization of local associations and the establishment of Psychiatric Clinics in connection with our hospitals.

The Dominion Government should be urged to pass the necessary enactment and to appoint properly qualified officials to see that

our country is not over-run by the feeble-minded from other countries. Finally, the Provincial Government should establish institutions for the permanent care of the adult mentally defectives.

The protection and care of all the feeble-minded must be continued as long as it is necessary for their own good and for the good of the community; that is, during the whole course of their lives. Recent research has shown that in about seventy-five per cent. of cases the cause of the mental defect has been hereditary, descending from one or both parents or from their direct ancestors. Hence, while it is our duty to be kind to the feeble-minded, to protect them from wrong, insult, injury and injustice, to do our best for them by training, education and opportunity. We are wronging them if we allow them to become parents as we have done in the past, wronging their miserable children, who should never have been born, and wronging our country and our city by entailing on them that heavy burden of expense, and that heavier burden of crime, misery and degeneracy which the mental defectives always occasion.

Now, what is your duty as a teacher? You are vitally concerned. The work of your profession has been rendered more difficult and less efficient by the presence of the feeble-minded in the class-room. You know full well that your efforts to train and educate the mental defective have been a failure; you have seen them leave school to drift into poverty and crime. What are you going to do about it, you men and women who know the situation, who understand the problem, you men and women who occupy such a high and responsible position in society, who are leaders in thought and in reform? Are you going to continue to allow matters to drift, or will you take an active interest in this great reform? Will you strive to form an association to educate the people of your locality, and to ally yourselves with others who have a like ambition and purpose, so that by our combined efforts we may find a satisfactory and adequate solution for the great problem?

*THE REPORT OF THE LEGISLATION COMMITTEE,
PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.*

The Legislation Committee is composed of the officers of the Section and any other persons who can be of help in the furthering of the movement to have the resolutions of our Section adopted by the Department of Education, and placed on our statute books, or embodied in the Regulations. It will be seen that the work is largely a matter of public education, and it is part of the duty of each Public School teacher of the Province to understand the nature and purpose of each of our resolutions, and to devote some time to planning how the purpose may be attained; and to communicate to those in charge of the work any suggestions that may occur to him.

The resolutions of last year were prepared for the press and sent out in limited numbers to the various institutes. They also appear in the Report of the Proceedings of the O. E. A. for 1916.

Some of our resolutions refer to unsatisfactory conditions which now exist and have existed for some time. Some of them refer to conditions with which we were threatened, and which our resolutions were more or less instrumental in warding off—temporarily or permanently. These are formally sent to the Minister of Education and the officials of his department, and from time to time, as occasion offers, or occasions are made, one or more of the resolutions come up for consideration, now with one official and now with another. But in addition, one or more formal appointments are secured with the Minister, and selected resolutions are urged before him. The Deputy Minister, the Superintendent of Education, the Chief Inspector, and others, are usually present on these occasions.

While all our resolutions are retained until they are granted, we have adopted the policy of emphasizing certain resolutions which, for the time being, are outstanding in importance. This year your Committee emphasized the resolutions dealing with:—

1. The Passing of the Superannuation Scheme.
2. The making of the School Year correspond with the Academic Year, and not the Calendar Year.
3. The Qualifications Required for Public School Inspectors, so that experience and professional skill will have more recognition than mere academic attainments.

4. The securing of the co-operation of the Local Institutes in our movements, and their financial support.

Of course, the most outstanding resolutions for this year were those relating to the enactment of a superannuation scheme. In this movement we had the sympathy and hearty co-operation of the Minister and his officials; and many indeed are the conferences we have had, during the year, relating to this subject. There were many things which seemed to say that if we could not secure the passage of a superannuation scheme this year, the whole matter would be postponed indefinitely. Knowing this, no stone was left unturned that would, by any chance, forward the movement; and fortunately our labors have been crowned with success.

But although the present Bill is one of the best which has so far been adopted in any state or country, of which we know, there is much to be done yet, to get the scheme in proper working order. Regulations will have to be drafted and precedents created. Two good representatives will have to be chosen by the O. E. A. to be members of the Superannuation Commission. For some time these will need to be in constant consultation, and should be convenient to Toronto—persons in whom the members of our profession have every confidence.

The changing of the school year to correspond with the academic, so that the reports of our schools would be made for the year ending with the 30th June, was another of the resolutions which your Committee emphasized. The extra burden which the present way of reporting our Public and High Schools, as well as the inaccuracy or even falseness of the impressions which the public statistics convey, were urged before the Minister; and we are of the opinion that in the near future, legislation will be passed which will remedy this evil. As the change is dependent upon a statute, not upon the Regulations, it is more difficult to effect; but the session just closed has shown how much important progressive legislation can be passed in one year, and we think it is quite within the province of probability that if we urge for the change this year, we may be successful. "Strike while the iron is hot," is an adage that is as good as it is old. Such a piece of legislation alone would be a very good reward for a whole year's work.

Your Committee urged the re-adjustment of the qualifications for Public School Inspectors, which at present over-emphasizes academic requirements, so that practically all our inspectorships are

going to High School men who have very little experience in Public School work. The following is quoted from *The Schoolmaster*, the official organ of the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales, in its issue of January 13th, of this year, under the title, "Inspectors and Experience":—

"Lately, the Master of Balliol said that '*the ordinary man, with his practical experience of the way things really work, has advantages that do much to balance the supposed superiority of the "academic" student; it is the old question—which takes us deeper into life, books or life itself?*' It used to be thought, at the Board of Education, that elementary school teachers could not be promoted to the higher posts because their academic attainments were insufficient, but the standpoint for that view rocks under the feet to-day, if it has not already slipped out of existence. Induction, from experience, not deductions, from mere reasoning, is the vital method, which accounts for British success more than any other single thing."

"There are now in the inspectorates, men who have passed from the elementary schools and the Training Colleges to the Universities, won "honors" there, and are doing, in their districts, work at least as scholarly and efficient as that of their colleagues with Public School antecedents. Men like these have accumulated special experience such as inspectors specially need; they know the life of the elementary school and its possibilities, the work of the teacher in these schools, and its disabilities; they know the Training Colleges from inside; and they are likely to be at least as able and even more constructively valuable critics and men of suggestion than their colleagues can possibly be." The world moves. Let us help it to move in the right direction.

In the matter of desiring the co-operation and financial support of the Local Institutes, we are pleased to say we are making progress. This year's report is again an advance on all former years, as the report of the Treasurer will show. The success which attended the united work of the Institutes for a superannuation scheme this year gives us some idea of what an influence the teachers of the Province could exert if they would co-operate. Why can we not agree upon one, or two, outstanding resolutions and work for its, or their enactment.

S. NETHERCOTT, *Vice-President,*
Chairman of Committee.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON SUPPLEMENTARY READING.

I have little to add to my former reports on Supplementary Readers. These reports have been printed in the Minutes. I again repeat my former condemnation of the Fourth Reader. Some of the selections are incorrect English, some are vulgar, and many are quite too difficult for the comprehension of minds of children 12-14 years of age. I might cite as examples:—

Hands All Round.

A Hymn of Empire.

Dost Thou Look Back?

England, My England.

Many others might be enumerated, but these will probably be sufficient to prove my point. Some will argue that we should give students good, difficult work to study—not easy. That depends on the age of the pupils, and it also depends upon our purpose in teaching literature. My idea is that we teach literature, first and most important, to create and foster a love for good books; second, to enable the pupil to understand and therefore appreciate good books. But if we fail in the first, we lamentably fail in the second and all else. Note how avid the pupils are when the lesson is, say, Dickens in the Camp, The Waterfowl, The Unnamed Lake, Daffodils; and note how reluctantly the books are opened when Hudson Strait, by Agnes C. Laut; The Great North-West, by Baker; or True Greatness, by George Eliot, is the lesson for the day.

Again I repeat, all the books of the Public School should be prepared by Public School teachers, not by University or High School men, or worse, prepared by those who have long since ceased to be engaged in teaching in any school. They do not see the situation; they cannot understand it; they have long since forgotten it; maybe they never knew it. Surely it is only fair to believe that those who teach the children are best qualified to know their powers of mental grasp; to know what they enjoy; to know what is best for them. Let University men prepare University texts; High School men, High School texts; and Public School teachers, Public School texts. We demand it, and it is only fair it should be granted.

Next and last point: The School Supplementary Readers should be carried by the Public Library. Why should any centre spend two moneys, when one expenditure would be sufficient? Let the principals of the schools make out their lists, both for Public and High Schools, give it to the Library Board in June, ask the Board to get so many copies of each set. The Library will get the legislative return. The books will then be available for the students and for the public as well.

Respectfully submitted,

W. F. MOORE,
Chairman.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

CHAS. G. FRASER, PRINCIPAL, MANNING AVENUE SCHOOL, TORONTO.

Mr. President, Fellow Teachers,—Again, I wish the privilege of thanking you for the continued confidence you showed me last year, in re-electing me your Secretary. I have been an officer of this branch of the O. E. A. for over twenty years, almost continuously—you minute-secretary, your press reporter, your treasurer, your secretary, and your vice-president. The year I was vice-president, the President did not think it worth while to attend the meeting, and I had the privilege of occupying the chair; but I have not had the honor of being your president.

I have taken the time, lately, to look over the minutes of our department—now a section—since 1891, when the Ontario Educational Association, with its six departments, was formed, and I have made a list of the officers for each year since that time. Each year called up many memories that were very pleasant, and faces that have become very dear in friendship. Some of them are no longer with us.

If all is well, a circle of “The Guards” will be organized this year, to be composed of those who are really veterans in our ranks, so that we may have a special reunion meeting each Easter Monday night—a social function, in which “*the boys*” will have an opportunity of shouldering their crutch to show how fields were won. The latest victory that has crowned our efforts—a superannuation scheme—not being the last by any means.

I am reminded of how complicated the work of our section now is compared with what it was “some twenty years ago.” How many movements have been organized, how many reforms introduced, how many changes made, during that time; and it is very gratifying to us to be able to say to the authorities that they cannot point to a single instance of their having had to regret the following of our advice.

When we remember the little amphitheatre which then held our whole Association, and think of the vast audience which now attends our evening meetings—when we recall the great rejoicing we had when it was announced that we had reached the three

hundred mark so we all could get a free ticket home, and think of the confidence with which we now look forward to having a thousand teachers from all parts of the Province in attendance, and over three hundred of them in our own section—when we compare the changing personnel of our former membership with the reunions which we now have, where we older teachers “renew our youth like the eagle”—when we look at our platform with its carefully chosen planks and remember the resolutions of those former years—when we recall the way our representatives were met by the Minister of Education, and the open antagonism which was shown—*arrogantly shown*—and see the way a deputation of teachers representing public school interests is received to-day by the Minister of Education, the Deputy Minister, the Superintendent of Education, or even by the Prime Minister himself and the members of his Cabinet—when we recall how one of our resolutions after another has been adopted by the Department and placed in the Regulations or on the statute book—when we remember the changed attitude of the sister sections of the O. E. A. to us—when we remember how we had to bribe reporters to have certain features included in the papers, and know that now the papers take the trouble to write those on our programme to ask for advanced copies of their papers to be read before our section, we feel proud of the place the Public School Section now holds in our Educational Council, of our sound policy and our liberal-conservative ideals regarding educational problems and of our steady yearly progress. All this has taken work. It did not just grow, like Topsy.

The work for the present year was, for your Secretary, along the lines of former years. We had to prepare the minutes and the resolutions for publications and distribution, and also the various papers which were read before our section had to be arranged for the Report of the Proceedings. These occupy one hundred pages in the published report this year; and this is not too great, in proportion to our membership.

The work of carrying on an agitation for a superannuation scheme required much time and thought. It was *now or never*. What would advance the cause? Who should be written to? What points could be urged in its favor? What point might be urged against the proposal, and how could it be met successfully? Who could assist, and where? What danger loomed ahead, and what

provision could be made to meet it? What point could we inquire about, or what favor could we ask, that might have a tendency to fan the little spark into a flame? The result was satisfactory—a conflagration.

Our relations with the President this year have been very cordial indeed. During the whole year he has been planning for a successful meeting for 1917; and the programme you have before you is a monument to his skill and efforts. He has maintained the ideals of Presidents in the past, and even added something to them. It is easy to arrange for anything for our programme when we know what is wanted. We are delighted to remember the cordal way in which one after another consented to take a place on your programme. Your name was a "Sesame" indeed. In looking over the review of the programme of the whole Association which appeared in the educational column of the "*Mail and Empire*" a couple of weeks ago, I was pleased to notice that practically every topic we have on our programme was referred to, or mentioned. They were grouped according to the various absorbing interests or educational movements of the present time to show how complete our "bill of fare" was.

At one time this spring, I feared that my strength would give way under the special strain I had to bear; but I am pleased to say I am feeling more like myself again—eating, sleeping, working, with a relish that I feared was slipping from my grasp. This reminds me that some day I *must* pass the work on. I hope I shall be able to lay it down as gracefully as leaders in the present struggle are giving place to others, accepting the subordinate with a generosity, a cheerfulness, an alacrity, which is a marvel indeed, applying themselves to the lesser "bit" with a whole-heartedness that is an example to men and angels. When you think it is time for a change, I will gladly accept your suggestion.

I trust your stay with us will be pleasant, and our meeting together profitable. Make friendships here. Speak to those near you. They are your brothers and sisters, they also are devoting their time to the conservation and development of the child-life of Ontario, striving to instil ideals in the hearts of our boys and girls that will make them men and women of true British principles and ideals. We will do our work better for having met; and we hope the days that are to come will be brighter because of our remembrances of these hours.

CHAS. G. FRASER,
Secretary.

RESOLUTIONS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.

PASSED APRIL 10, 11, AND 12, 1917. ...

RESOLUTIONS.

I. *Expression of Appreciation.*

1. That we again express our appreciation of the concessions granted to us and of the many kindnesses and courtesies shown to our committee by the Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., Minister of Education; Hon. G. Howard Ferguson, K.C., Acting Minister of Education, the worthy Deputy, Dr. Colquhoun, the Superintendent of Education, Dr. Seath, and the other officials of the Department of Education, and for the consideration they have shown in promoting the welfare of our section.

2. That this Section of the Ontario Education Association, representing 12,000 Ontario Public School Teachers and 85 per cent. of those engaged in Primary, Secondary and Training Schools of the Province, expresses its appreciation of the Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., Minister of Education; the Prime Minister, Sir William Hearst and his other colleagues; Mr. N. W. Rowell, Leader of the Opposition; and the Ontario Legislature, for placing on the Statutes of the Province the Superannuation Act, which, we are confident, will prove the very keystone of the arch of our educational system, ensuring greater stability to the profession, a more highly qualified body of teachers with training bettered by experience, a more contented body of workers whose interest in the Superannuation Fund, increasing from year to year, will represent a tangible expression of the Province's appreciation of faithful service in the great work of nation-building.

II. *The Public School Curriculum.*

3. That the report of the committee on Supplementary Reading be adopted, and the committee be requested to continue its work and make a further report when it has sufficient material therefor; and that the Minister be asked to publish the report as a special bulletin.

III. *Public School Text-books.*

4. That when the Minister of Education contemplates the authorization or revision of a text-book on any subject, he should

give at least one year's notice of his intention thereof, that those who wish may submit a book in type-written form if necessary; and that Public School Teachers be consulted in the preparation and selection of all Public School Text-books.

5. That two committees be appointed (one for each book) (1) to arrange the table of contents of each of the Third and Fourth Readers into two well-graded groups of lessons suitable for the junior and senior class in each book; to prepare (2) an index of the titles of the lessons; (3) an index of the authors; and (4) a pronouncing vocabulary of the proper names.

6. That we disapprove of the inclusion in our readers of selections containing slang and incorrect English; and that a committee be appointed to make a list of the objectionable expressions and lessons to present to the Department.

7. That we appreciate the work of the Government in changing the former Primer; and we express the hope that the Primer may be further improved so that in the matter of word recognition it will be better adapted to a logical use of phonics.

8. That our Geographies be supplied with more and better maps.

9. That the Geography text should be of a convenient size so that pupils could read it with convenience—a companion atlas being supplied for map reference.

10. That a Drill Text-book, suitable for Cadet Corps, be prepared by a competent person.

IV. *The Entrance Examination.*

11. That there be a local board of examiners for each inspectorate, to direct the work of the examination. It shall be composed of representatives of the three educational interests connected with such work—Public School, High School and Inspectors.

12. That the papers should be marked only by teachers who are actually engaged in teaching Entrance work. In large cities the number of examiners could be proportionately increased.

V. *Teachers' Certificates.*

13. That we request the Minister of Education to make such changes in the present requirements of public school inspectors' certificates as will make it possible for public school teachers to

qualify—the essential qualification being *successful public school experience and capability* rather than mere academic standing.

14. That the requirements for a public school inspector's certificate shall be:

(a) The holding of a First-Class professional certificate of qualification or a degree in arts granted by a recognized Canadian university;

(b) An experience of ten years' successful teaching in public schools, covering all grades of public school work;

(c) The passing of a pedagogical examination, controlled, and set by the Department of Education, or the securing of a degree in pedagogy in any recognized Canadian university.

15. That in the opinion of this Department it would make for the betterment of the public schools of this Province were the Science of Education given equal status with other departments in the Provincial University, and the present course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy opened to all matriculated students.

VII. *Departmental Regulations.*

16. That the Department of Education be requested to make the School Year end on June the 30th, and to have the annual reports of the pupils' attendance, etc., made out accordingly.

17. That in the opinion of the Public School Section of the O.E.A., the present method of listing as "*the school population*" all persons of the ages 5-21 (inclusive) serves no good purpose, and has proved grossly misleading to ourselves and to our sister provinces; it should therefore be dropped, and for these figures should be substituted the number of persons of the ages 6-16 (inclusive) and the number of children of compulsory attendance age, i.e., 8-14 (inclusive).

18. That the method of listing the actual number of pupils registered during the year, charging to the school as full year pupils all Entrance class pupils, all young pupils entered in April and September, all pupils admitted from other schools and all pupils removed to other schools during the year has proved very misleading; and the Department of Education should require instead the average monthly registration and the percentage of attendance based on the same.

19. That the purpose of teachers' institutes should not be limited to the discussion of educational methods, but should allow the consideration of educational questions affecting the welfare of the schools and the teachers.

20. That we endorse the preparation and use throughout the Province of a Monthly Report Card and also a Continuous Record Card for each pupil.

21. That Report and Record Cards similar to those submitted be printed and distributed throughout the Province and that teachers be urged to give them a trial.

22. That as our present Daily Registers are not suitable as books of original entry for such records, suggestions be made to the Department of Education regarding a proper form for such entries.

23. That the age limit for Cadet Corps be changed in the Provincial Act, from 14 to 18 years, so as to read, as in the Dominion Regulations, "12 to 18 years."

24. That the Cadet Course of work or its equivalent in Physical Training, be made compulsory in all schools where the Board thereof believes the conditions to be favorable.

VIII. *An Ontario Educational Gazette.*

25. That we recommend to the consideration of the Honorable the Minister of Education the publication of an Educational Gazette, to the end that every worker in the field of education in the Province may be informed of all Departmental regulations, instructions and reports, and that teachers at large may be bound together by a recognized official organ of intercommunication.

IX. *General.*

26. That this Association approves of the Resolution of the Windsor and Walkerville Association, and continues to urge very strongly its disapproval of (1) melodramatic and comic picture shows; (2) the manufacture and sale of cigarettes; (3) the comic supplements that are appearing in some of our Canadian papers.

27. That before people are allowed to marry they should present a certificate from a qualified medical practitioner that they are mentally and physically qualified for the rights of parenthood.

28. That we express our approval of the plan proposed by Dr. Conboy for the solution of the problem of the feeble-minded in

Toronto, and that we hope also that provision will be made for the carrying out of such a plan not only in Toronto, but in other places throughout the Province.

X. *Contributions from the Institutes.*

29. That local Teachers' Institutes sending delegates to the Public School Section of the O.E.A. be charged a membership fee of Five Dollars for each hundred members it has; and that one session of the Public School Section be devoted to the work directly proposed for and by the local Institutes.

We thank the local institutes which, in the past, have contributed to the funds of this Section of the O.E.A., to carry on the campaign of reform which has been inaugurated. It demands a considerable amount to meet the postage and printing bills, and we hope *each institute* will, this year, contribute to this fund. Some institutes have contributed their share every year. Let this become a habit in *every* institute; begin now by sending \$5 or more to the Secretary of the Public School Section of the O.E.A.

The work and aims of the Public School Section of the Ontario Educational Association and of the local teachers' institutes throughout the Province are identical. Each in its own sphere—the Municipality, the County or the Province—is endeavoring to create a fraternal spirit among public school teachers, to strengthen the bond that exists among them, to discuss topics of general interest to the members of the profession, and, by all legitimate means, to improve the conditions under which they labor; and the success that will attend their efforts will be dependent upon the measure of co-operation that exists between the central association and the local institutes.

KINDERGARTEN SECTION

HOW CAN WE PREPARE OUR CHILDREN FOR CITIZENSHIP, AND GUIDE THEM IN CHOOSING THEIR SPECIAL LIFE WORK ?

BY MRS. A. C. COURTICE.

Two main principles are: 1st, By encouraging individuality. 2nd, By providing vocational opportunities for boys and girls of school age. The purpose of education through the public schools is to insure a high type of citizenship and a high social state, by considering the needs of the child and the needs of the community.

The way to improve the mass is by improving the unit, and it is our business to organize our educational system so that opportunities may be given each individual to be the most effective unit possible. Schools generally assume that children are alike, and must have a uniform curriculum dispensed alike to all, whereas the outstanding fact about children is that they are different and should be treated with a large degree of individuality.

OBSTACLES TO INDIVIDUALITY.

Large classes are the constant obstacle to any individual attention which every child should have. They interfere with discipline, with self-control, with health of body, mind and soul, while smaller classes tend to do away with punishments and with home work, and to make more possible a knowledge of the child.

Dr. Payson Smith, the new Commissioner of Education for Massachusetts, says: "The need of American schools is not for better teachers of reading, Latin or English, but it is for better teaching of children—the ability to get within the real being of a child and help him to a realization of his own powers to the end that he may make the contribution of his life and service in his own way to the enrichment of citizenship and to the betterment of the world."

THE RIGHT BALANCE BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE.

It is indeed a great problem to know how to earn a living—this

is practical; but it is even a greater problem to know how to live—this is ideal. Our homes and schools must both contribute to this double problem.

Already England has appointed a commission to review the whole field of national education, with a view to the requirements of the period of reconstruction. Progressive educators everywhere are feeling that their systems of education are outgrown, and there is a feeling of unrest as they cast about for measures that will remedy defects of the past and prepare to meet the demands of the future.

Thomas W. Churchill, former President of the New York Board of Education, says: "The growth of cities, the removal of people from the land, their crowding together in smaller houses, the specialization of labor—all these have withdrawn from children a great part of the developing influences which were the rule fifty years ago. The equipment of the old-fashioned schools was meagre and poor, but co-operating with them were forces greater than they. There was a freer contact then than now with nature and the outdoor life; there was the old-fashioned home, and there were the old forms of industry, in which children learned skill of hand, correctness of eye, and economy of management. These influences are so essential to the training of the kind of men and women that America must have that there falls to the managers of the public schools the heavy burden of supplying, in so far as possible, what the change of living conditions has taken away from the children."

The general cry nowadays from fathers and mothers is, Give our children a practical education, thorough and effective. Fit them for living and for earning a livelihood!

Perhaps no experiment of these two forces has had a greater public recognition than that of Mr. Wirt, of the Gary Schools in Indiana and in New York, which may help to answer the question we are asking ourselves—How can we prepare our young people for citizenship and for their special life work?

THE GARY SCHOOLS.

They are Work, Study and Play schools, with shops, gymnasium and auditorium added to school building, play-grounds and school gardens provided outside. This plan provides the regular desk and seat for about one-quarter of the children. While they are studying the traditional three R's, etc., the rest of the school is distributed in shop and play-ground, gymnasium and studio, or at home.

By this means every child has the varied facilities offered him every day, but it is possible to accommodate in one school building twice the ordinary number of children.

In Canada we have endeavored to introduce a limited amount of vocational training into our public and high schools in order to meet the needs of the pupils and the needs of their communities. As yet the effort has been superficial, and is a patching-up process rather than a vital correlated part of an education system that will stimulate the highest standard of living and efficiency. The cry for health, for economy, for production and for service demands a quick response at the present time, and boys and girls must learn their power to live the right life and to earn an honest living.

We, the citizens of Ontario and Canada, owe it to them to show the way, even at the expense of adopting new types of buildings, new conditions in which to work and play, and, if necessary, a new curriculum. With greater opportunities given in our schools and in our homes too for boys and girls to work with their hands and their heads, yes and their hearts too, there will be a new interest created and a new relationship established between doing and being. The child will realize that he is a creator and that his country needs him because of what he is and what he can do. His country needs him and his community needs him, not only because he knows how to earn a living, but because he knows how to live. In other words, his whole being has gone to school. He will be efficient, but his efficiency will be spiritual as well as material. The ideal and the practical will have met, because he loves to serve, and because he has been taught how to serve.

FIFTY YEARS OF FEDERATION.

BY PROF. GEORGE M. WRONG, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

One never ceases to marvel that Federation came about. At the beginning of 1867, what is now Canada consisted of scattered provinces in the East, separated from British Columbia, on the Pacific coast, by a vast wilderness and by mountain ranges across which few white men had ever made their way. Five years later Canada was a great state stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, with a constitution which has stood the test of time, and is probably destined to be permanent in character. Created when the federal constitution of the United States seemed to be breaking down, the Canadian constitution avoids some of the defects of the older system and embodies British traditions of government which have borne the test of time. In these days of quickened national life, when war has made unity the supreme necessity, we may well ask what the Canadian provinces could have done had they not been federated. The magic that united them in 1867 was a common British tradition, and the magic still operates. It seems to link the present with the past in an unbroken connection. It has brought Canada into a terrible war, but it has helped to save her soul, and no real patriot grudges the sacrifice.

If we ask what are the chief changes since 1867, we find that perhaps the most important one is due to the building of railways. Canadian politics have been chiefly concerned with railways, for in a vast country means of communication are the supreme necessity. In 1867 Quebec was remote from Nova Scotia, for there was no band of steel uniting them, and Ontario was almost inconceivably remote from British Columbia. Just before Federation the shortest route to British Columbia was by way of the Isthmus of Panama. If during the last fifty years Canada has become a nation, it is largely because railways have carried ideas as well as commodities.

Other changes are due to the increase of wealth. Canada has now great industries, and these have brought fortunes to a good many. Canada has become, too, a mining country, and mines have brought riches. Fifty years ago the most promising youth of the country turned to the United States for careers. Hardly a family

but had several members there. This has in a large degree ended, and now Americans are seeking careers in Canada. With wealth has come better education. For every hundred students in the University of Toronto fifty years ago there are now probably a thousand, and this is true also of other centres. If Canada is backward in respect to literature and art, it is still true that now there are a dozen interested in these things where fifty years ago there was one. A real national unity has grown up. British Columbia is still remote from the East, even in some of its modes of thought, but there is undoubtedly a common national life, and this is growing stronger every day. The West is more likely to rule the East than to be ruled by it, but there is no serious danger of national disruption. Canada is as real a political unit as the United States.

The outlook of us all upon the world has changed since 1867. At that time the great thought in men's minds was liberty for the masses. If these were given the vote, we should find a wisdom in the people which should make for national well-being. There is a wisdom in the people, as the present war has shown us, and I should be the last to condemn democracy. The present war has proved how enlightening to a nation's spirit liberty can be. But with this we have learned that a true democracy requires an educated people. *Laissez-faire* will not do. Uninstructed liberty runs to anarchy. To-day the state undertakes things which fifty years ago it deemed no part of its duty. It takes charge of education. It carries on great railway enterprises, and is likely in our case to do still more. It refuses to permit the sale of spirituous liquors. It looks after public health with a thoroughness which is new. With the state doing so much, the citizen of the state requires a higher intelligence than was necessary fifty years ago.

We may as well face the fact. No democracy any more than an aristocracy has yet learned how to carry on government effectively. In all the older societies, including even the United States, there are great masses of people who are always underfed. One-quarter of the babies born in England suffer because their mothers had not enough to eat. No society is successful where such conditions exist. Hitherto men have controlled society, and men have failed to correct such evils. Now we have a new experiment. With us, women have been given the vote, and we may hope that woman's help will correct evils which men have failed to correct.

As yet, Canada has few people who lack the necessities of life, though it is deplorably true that slums are growing up in our large cities. Fifty years have seen a great improvement in our standards of living. The houses of the poorest to-day have evidences of well-being hardly known with this class fifty years ago. The picture is not all roseate, for the coming of the foreigner from backward parts of Europe has lowered the general standard of living in the cities. There is, however, independence almost in our atmosphere, and this brings with it a dignity of life which is pleasing.

Perhaps the most striking change in Canada is in breadth of outlook. The separated colonies of fifty years ago thought only of themselves. To Nova Scotia, Upper Canada hardly existed, and there were few who had visions of what the West might become. Now Nova Scotia on the Atlantic has many sons on the Pacific living under the same government, and ponders problems continental in range. More than this, all parts of Canada feel a reality of union with the whole British Empire. The war has matured this feeling. To Canada, Australia and South Africa are now vivid realities. We are beginning to think of India and her problems. The Fathers of Confederation would be startled indeed were they to return to see what confronts us now.

It is always well for a people to try to estimate their own defects. As I have said, democracy is still on trial, and no democratic state is yet, or perhaps ever will be, out of danger. The very magnitude of Canada creates a difficulty in working democratic institutions. The effectiveness of democracy depends upon unity in public opinion. In so vast a country it is hard to get this unity. In England a political leader can address a meeting in the South in the morning and another in the North on the evening of the same day. There are newspapers in England read regularly in every part of the country. In Canada it takes nearly a week to pass from one end of the country to the other. Eastern newspapers are little read in the West, and often the separated peoples are not thinking about the same things. Yet the working of democratic government depends upon union in the same ideals. The difficulty is so real that one sometimes hears of a possible breaking away of the West from the East.

If we dismiss the old idea that a democracy will work well almost by instinct, we must turn to the deeper thought that the

public welfare depends upon the education of the people: No doubt in education we have made progress, but I wonder sometimes whether the progress is equal to the measure of our increased opportunities. We may be thankful that nearly everyone in Canada can read and write. Few of our people, however, are sufficiently trained really to think effectively about our political problems. The masses of the people will always follow leaders, and we may well ask who are our leaders? The answer is that the ablest men in the country are, on the whole, not leading in our political affairs. This is quite natural, for Canada, the land of opportunity, offers a fortune to the men who devote themselves to business. These have no time for politics, and in consequence our political fortunes suffer. It is also true that, in a new country, many grow rich who do not understand the uses and the responsibility of wealth. Money is spent in lavish and sometimes in vicious luxury, which might be used with greater pleasure and profit in more healthful ways. There is too great a gap between the city and the country. In England almost invariably the man of wealth has a place in the country, lives for a good part of his time among country people, and takes an interest and part in agriculture and in the raising of stock. I should like to see every rich man in Canada have such a place in the country and know and learn from our farming people.

It is still true also that our commercial class do not appreciate education as do similar classes in the United States. Many thousands of American business men are graduates of universities. This is not yet true in Canada. Our banks insist on taking clerks at so early an age that they cannot have had an adequate education and a wider outlook on political and economic questions. I doubt if there are half a dozen bankers in Canada who are graduates of a university. The same is largely true of those who are engaged in directing our great railways, the vital national interest of transportation. Probably the worst educated class in the country in relation to their responsibilities consist of the daughters of the well-to-do. These may go to England or France for some kind of training in languages or art, but of training in respect to thought on the problems of society they know almost nothing. Higher education is not the fashion in this class. They rather look down upon those who go to the university, since in the university all classes mingle freely. Yet from this very class of women should come leadership

in regard to social problems. As it is, hardly one of them could read a stiff book dealing with such questions. There is real need of a mission for our only leisure class, the daughters of the well-to-do in respect to their social responsibilities.

Fifty years has seen one remarkable change, at least in Eastern Canada. While half a century ago in this province many of our leaders had been born and educated in the old world, it is true now that they are native of Canada, the product of the life of the country. In a word, we have passed from an imported to a native culture. In our universities the professors, in our law courts the judges, are with comparatively few exceptions, natives of Canada. The same is true of the clergy who are leading in the religious life of the province. The change is not wholly to be admired, for there are many things which the old world can still teach us. We have hardly produced here the depth of literary and classical culture to be found in Europe, and the native Canadian mode of speech leaves something to be desired. Few, however, will doubt that the change is in the interests of our national life. We ought to train our own leaders and create our own traditions. Probably few of us realize the extent to which we have become independent of Europe. Half a century ago political leaders like Sir John Macdonald, George Brown and Alexander Mackenzie were natives of Europe. I doubt if at the present time Ontario sends to Parliament half a dozen members not native to this country. This is less true of the West, but at the same time Canadian national feeling is even stronger in the West than in the East.

Looking forward, one asks what one may hope for in the near future. One thing at least, a deepening sense of the meaning of life and of the variety of its interests. Canada produces an abundant supply of bread, but man does not live by bread alone. It is probably true that as a people we are very deficient in an appreciation of beauty. Our villages can hardly be said to be attractive; they seem unkempt and uncared-for—something that is due largely to the scarcity of labor. Not unnaturally, our cities are better cared for than our villages, and some of them are becoming really beautiful. It is in the growth of the sense of beauty that we shall find a rich source of happiness. There is nothing to discourage us. Our rich men are beginning to show appreciation of artists by buying their pictures, but one could wish the progress were more rapid. The love

of flowers is growing; one is astonished at the beautiful gardens which are now not uncommon. We have a school of poetry full of promise. It is to be hoped that the man who works with his hands will not only gain a larger share of the profits of his labor, when there is profit, but that he will learn how to use well his earnings. There is still too much love of excitement in amusement. An educated people learn to love best the quiet open-air life, with books and music at the home fireside, and with beauty in their surroundings.

One thing above all we are learning in these great and solemn days that what is worth winning in life is won only by labor and sacrifice. Life has given nothing to mortals without great labor, said the pagan poet, and now, in a deeper sense, we are realizing the central truth of Christianity, that our hold on the best in life can be made secure only by sacrifice. It is a sorrowful experience, but, this young nation has not shrunk from learning it, and in this truth lies the best guarantee of our future.

THE IMAGINATION.

PROFESSOR J. GIBSON HUME, HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF
PHILOSOPHY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

The teacher is engaged in the most serious and important business of assisting the undeveloped struggling consciousness of the child to pass from possibility to actuality, as Aristotle calls it, from vague promise to realization or fulfilment of power, capacity, character. We have as teachers in the past given perhaps too much attention to the memory training. We have not neglected the cultivation of the reasoning powers, but the imagination has not received its fair share of attention. Although the imagination may contribute largely to educational-moral development and assist in the business of life, it is apt to be thought that it is rather allied to frivolity. This is due to the fact that the imagination is closely allied to the fancy, and we all know that the fancy may become fanciful or even fantastic. We will need to show how the imagination is related to the fancy, and how it may escape the weakness that attaches to the mere fancy. Just because the whole mental life is a unity, it will turn out that all our several powers and capacities are in some way related. I think we would be correct in calling the earlier more erratic, sportive phases of the consciousness "fancy," and that out of this we need to press forward to the constructive creative imagination which is a later, more developed, expression of the human consciousness. Fancy might be regarded then as an earlier stage of the imagination. Imagination as the wider, more developed, will include in it the fancy, though it passes beyond it. We may illustrate the relation of less to including greater by recalling the well-known antithesis between knowing and doing, between theory and practice. Instead of setting these in sharp opposition, as is usually done, I would be inclined to say that we have a case of earlier and later, less and more. I would regard the merely knowing attitude as the simpler, earlier, in the conscious life. Knowing is a stage in doing. Instead then of opposing them I would regard knowing as a kind of incipient doing that must be developed into more adequate and complete doing. We must pass beyond knowing what to do, to doing what we know. In a wide and important sense imagination might be said to cover the whole field of imagery. If we

consider for a moment, it will occur to us that every step we take in consciousness beyond the immediate insistent sense impression of the present fleeting moment, is due to our power of imaging. Without this picturing power we should be trammelled within such narrow limits that we would neither recall any past nor anticipate any future. We should have neither history nor statesmanship. The recall of the past is usually termed memory, but it is a part of the imaging process, though we usually identify the imagination more fully with the forward look into the unknown future. It deals with things hoped for. This imaging power that enables us to escape from the bonds of the insistent present is a liberating power. Indeed, at first it seemed chiefly linked with caprice. Fancy, the first expression of this liberating freedom-seeking activity, is apt to be quite capricious. Its watchword would seem to be, "I don't have to." Furthermore, the untrammelled fancy is inclined to playfulness, because it is inherently spontaneous. This spontaneous playfulness is the most precious thing in childhood. It is the tap root of all future growth. We cannot have a playful child if we have a sickly child. It is health, vigor and superabundant energy that bubbles over into play. Play is not merely an index of health and a result of health, it is also a giver and preserver of health. That is why play is called re-creation. Fancy is the mental side of bodily play. Fancy is mental playfulness. The Kindergarteners have always had the courage to specialize in their appreciation of the spontaneity, joyfulness and playfulness of the child life. The teacher of the Kindergarten is an earnest, hard-working, serious person actually making a business of encouraging and fostering play. But someone has said we do not play because we are young, but we are young because we play. Here we have found Ponce de Leon's fountain of youth. Nevertheless the meaning of the earlier fanciful stage of playfulness is to prepare us for work and all the serious business of life. We need to grow out of the irregular, erratic fancies and grow into the regular, regulated, orderly imagination. But if play is lost when work is found, we have made a dreadful blunder. We need to retain the spontaneity and joyfulness of play throughout even our most serious work. We should be able to find joy and satisfaction in all our work, and retain that spontaneity without which work is degraded into drudgery and learning into toilsome pedantry. The key to the development from the erratic,

crude fanciful into the nobler, higher imaginative, is through the discovery of interests in worthy objects. In projecting into our unattained future some worthy goal for all our strivings, and becoming so engrossed in the effort to attain and secure this ideal that we count not the cost. That is to live indeed! All our world benefactors and heroes have been so impelled. The greatest hero and benefactor that ever came to this earth of ours claimed that He came that others might have life and have it more abundantly.

Let us now consider how the imagination may assist us in the realms of science and art, morality and religion. I have already suggested how it should enable us to transmute ordinary labor and toil by giving it a meaning, a purpose and an inspiration. Of course, it is quite obvious that art and imagination go together. The imagination is indeed to grasp the beautiful. This artistic and beautiful satisfies a craving in our nature, and we all naturally desire not merely to see beauty, but to produce something orderly, harmonious, beautiful. To surround the child with beautiful objects is an environment helpful towards its appreciation of the artistic, but the really artistic nature cannot be largely developed by mere receptivity, it must become creative. It is as the child begins to make order out of disorder as he builds his block house, that he makes most progress toward art, and I seriously question if our modern elaborately constructed toys do not sometimes actually stunt the growth of the child by taking away the need of effort to get the result required. We cannot repeat too often, for we are always forgetting it, that learning is doing, and doing is learning more fully. Here I must admit that the Kindergartners have kept this in mind more faithfully than some others have done. It is quite remarkable, when you come to think of it, that it is at the beginning and at the end of our educational system that this principle of originality, independence, self-expression is most insisted on. When we take up the work for the Ph.D. degree, the first requisite that is insisted on is that the work done by the student must show originality and independence. It is strange that this is so often forgotten in the intervening stages of the educational courses. In reality it is the permanent, ubiquitous, indispensable principle not only of all education, but of all life. Each person should live his own life. No one was ever born to be a copy of anyone else, however fine the original. The Church has quite properly repudiated with scorn the shallow

doctrine that our Lord and Master was intended to be merely a model, a pattern, an example. He came to be an inspiration and a life, not a mere model for imitation in any external fashion.

If we turn to science, and this is the age of science, we must first of all note that all science is based on calculation and mathematics and experiment. You cannot make even the simplest experiment without first planning out the problem to be solved. To do this we must employ the scientific hypothesis; that is, we must use a highly developed imaginative construction. And if we turn to examine mathematics at the basis of all exact science, what do we find? We find that this source of all accuracy and exactness is nevertheless based on the creative imagination. Take the mathematician's definition of the mathematical point to start with. We could scarcely start with anything smaller, "without size and magnitude." Did you ever handle or touch such a point, or see it even with the help of the microscope? Yet by the help of the imagination we understand perfectly what is intended. Consider next the familiar atoms of science. Who ever saw, felt or handled these? They have never yet appeared to mortal eye, and are like the new health food constituents that we nowadays have to be fed up on, called "calories."

When the teachers of morality and religion admit their dependence on the imagination, scoffers often try to discredit them. "Let visionaries deal with the imaginary." I am therefore anxious that you should once for all realize that mathematics and science are also utterly impossible without the creative constructive imagination. Newton's law of gravitation was never tasted, touched or handled, however true and important it may be. It is the imagined that is the true. Look at the sun rising and setting, as you seem to perceive. It requires considerable imagination to realize that it is really the earth that is moving towards the sun, yet we believe this to be the truth. It must be frankly admitted that imagination enters into and is essential for morality and religion, and as morality is the simpler less adequate, religion the more developed more adequate, it will turn out that the imagination is needed for morality, but still more is it needed for religion. For morality, let us note for a moment how essential sympathy is for the life of moral service and for all the higher developments of moral dedication to the fuller, better life of the human spirit. But how can we sympathize with

others in any significant, deep, moral sense, unless we are able to represent to ourselves just how matters are in the experience of the one we sympathize with and desire to help? The merely instinctive infectious weeping of the child who weeps because his mother weeps, and knows not why, must be developed by imagination so that the sorrows and troubles of others may be understood and acted upon in appropriate acts of mercy and relief.

It was no accident at all that when the horrible devastating attack on Belgium was made by the Germans, the quickest to hear the call for succor were our best educated, brightest youths. They quickly realized by their well-trained minds, by their trained imaginations, just what it all meant, and they were prompt to act while duller people, many of them even now near the end of the third year of the war, scarcely begin to realize the situation. If science perverted has been discredited by the war, true education has been abundantly vindicated. Those narrow materialistic misconceptions about power and domination would not have taken such a deadly hold on the misguided people of Germany had they not lost their vision of the higher ideals of life, more intangible, but more real.

Though imagination enters deeply and greatly into the truly moral life, still more profoundly does it permeate the religious consciousness. How shall we comprehend what God, complete goodness, the completely good Person, means? The great All Father pitying our feeble powers, used Kindergarten methods. He sent His Son as a little child, as a youth, as a mature man, so that we might be enabled to realize something of what God and goodness means.

RECAPITULATION AND SUGGESTION.

1. The beginning of the mental life is in fancy, and we all must pass through the gateway of the fanciful, mingled with the fantastic towards more secure footing in more exact knowledge.

2. Even the simplest sensitive experience that materialistic writers try to explain as mere copy and impression of some external object mechanically acting on the human organism, is in reality always and in every instance a constructed ingredient in a freely, spontaneously, creatively active spiritual experience, and fancy would seem best suited as a term to describe this incipient active

intelligent working with all its spontaneity and apparent capriciousness. The watchword of fancy is freedom. Everyone realizes that this is a mere beginning in mental growth. It would be a tragedy if there were to be an arrested development at this stage; but what I desire you to realize is that though it is not a good stopping-place, it is a good starting-place.

2. In this original chaotic multiplicity of experience changing like a kaleidoscope, and passing so easily from smiles to tears there is a vital, growing element that is seeking order amid the disorder, and even its play is a seeking of order, a rule of the game. The charm of any game consists in the fact that one set of simple rules have to be immediately adapted and applied to the changing exigencies of meeting the opposing moves of the other side in the game. It also gives a clue to that curious hankering after repetition in the story-telling game. Although the story is made up, and the story-teller knows that it is only a story, and the listeners know that it is only a story, yet the story-teller having once told a story, must beware of taking undue liberties with it in the repetition. Here we have the germ of literary honesty and scientific accuracy. This is really the goal sought by the spontaneously playful fancy; there is an earnest factor, a desire for results, and this is the guiding principle of all memory, viz., accuracy.

3. But though memory is one of the first results of the fancy it is not a stopping-place, but a starting-place, for further acquisitions, and for rearrangements and corrections as we go on to more explicit knowledge of facts that are stubborn, and try to listen to the strange tales that have been told by old mother earth, and that we must not tamper with but correctly report.

4. Thus do we go on to build up exact knowledge and the various sciences, ever improving our methods of seeking and finding and proving.

5. At the same time we have a similar process and progress in the ordering of the emotional life, in gaining self-control, in securing habits of decision and in getting more definite conceptions of worthy purposes and noble ideals, that tend to dominate a well-formed character. In all these directions, as the original fancy becomes more definite, it passes over into the more orderly creative constructive imagination, and here we secure integrations or systems or

sciences in knowledge, and creeds and laws and convictions and character in conduct.

6. This, too, is a good starting-place, not a good stopping-place. Specialization is one of the outcomes of this stage, and it is hard to exaggerate its tremendous importance. In contrast with the earlier, fanciful, chaotic multiplicity and heterogeneous disorderliness or confusion, this specialization seems the consummation. But is it? Not at all. We need to push forward to still higher integrations. We need to see our various sciences, various beliefs and various strivings harmoniously co-ordinated. Here it is where the higher spontaneity and creative organizing power that we have called the productive constructive imagination is most needed.

This points us forward to ideals of order and beauty, of system and science and truth, and of co-operated endeavors in conduct evermore tending towards the adequately organized goodness of a really moral life, of the individual and of society. Beyond all these and including all these, we should have a vision and longing for a communion with the Father of all spirits, the source of all our dreams of beauty, all our proofs of truth, all our discoveries in science, all our aspirations for a higher life, all our longings for a brotherhood of man—all pointing to, all springing from, all consummated in the Fatherhood of God.

CONCLUSIONS.

We may roughly represent three or four great stages in normal human development.

1. First, we have primitive spontaneity in fancy that is, in the beginning, chaotic, but soon gropes for order.

2. We gradually pass from erratic fancies to ordered imagination, and thus build up industry and art, science and literature, morality and religion.

3. Our danger.—We are always tempted to lose the original creative spontaneity. Thus we make science mechanical, industry laborious, morality pharisaical, religion formal—all of them becoming thus decadent, dying or dead.

4. Instead of this calamity that threatens us all, we need to cultivate earnestly, by the help of the constructive imagination, those higher ideals that lure us onward and upward, that keep us

growing and developing, as we faithfully follow where they lead. Thus may we enter more fully and more joyfully into the higher life of the spirit, and learn to see the glory of labor, the beauty of art, the truth of science, the value of morality and service, the worthiness and enduring satisfaction of religion, and be enabled to appropriate that which taxes all our powers to imagine, all our efforts to realize, more and more, the goodness and the glory of the Father of all spirits, "Our Father." Thus may we become convinced that what we have imagined as Divine is by no means merely imaginary, but most real. That those marvellous words of our elder brother, leader and Saviour, "Our Father," are not too good to be true, but too true not to be good.

"And some among you held, that if the King
Had seen the sight he would have sworn the vow;
Not easily, seeing that the King must guard
That which he rules and is but as the hind
To whom a space of land is given to plow,
Who may not wander from the allotted field
Before his work be done; but, being done,
Let visions of the night or of the day
Come, as they will; and many a time they come,
Until this earth he walks on seems not earth,
This light that strikes his eyeball is not light,
This air that smites his forehead is not air,
But vision—yea, his very hand and foot—
In moments when he feels he cannot die,
And knows himself no vision to himself,
Nor the high God a vision, nor that One
Who rose again."

OCCUPATIONS.

MISS M. MACINTYRE.

In opening this discussion on "Occupation" work, as we are kindergartners, it is not necessary for us to go into the value of the Occupation work. But rather to consider the trend of our Occupation work, to see if we are keeping pace with modern development; to question whether, in our desire to be up-to-date, we do not sometimes seize a superficial phase and drop the substance.

In an analysis of educational methods of Kindergarten and Grade teachers, made in the States a few years ago, the Kindergartners were rated high, in certain things.

In the development of initiative, in this fact, that their appeal to the interests of the child's life supplied a *motive*, which made him work eagerly with his whole heart.

It might well be that kindergartners' methods should receive such recognition, for these are two things which Froebel emphasizes with untiring insistence. How he has reiterated again and again the necessity of appealing to the native interests of children. How well he provided, through his materials and games, for the appeal to these interests! When we think of what elementary education meant in Froebel's time, nothing but memory work, Latin taught at six years of age; when we think of what it meant to work out a system of concrete experiences, using a play method, yet involving definite educational values, we realize that Froebel was an educational genius in his day.

We are sometimes criticized for using a vocabulary which is said to be peculiar to ourselves. If we do it is unwise, where it can be avoided. Although every study and every branch of education has its own terms, which are familiar only to those who study it. Every science and every art has its own technical terms. Why exclude the Kindergarten? But let us not get into a rut and use terms mechanically; and, by all means, let us broaden our vocabulary, and, whenever possible, translate Froebels' terms into those in use in modern education. It puts new meaning into our Froebelian terms, and is therefore of benefit to us and makes our work more easily understood by others.

We have heard so much of late years about developing the efficiency of a pupil, developing the initiative. But what is initiative but that alert quality of mind, that seizes the situation, ready for an emergency—the power to carry out your own plans; to organize, to take responsibility? Does not this result in efficiency? Is not this what Froebel means by self-activity? What is self-activity if it is not the power to express your own ideas, to think and act for yourself? Now the occupations can give much of this training, if we give the children *scope*, through the use of this material. It is so naturally attractive it lends itself to make-believe play in such a variety of forms. It satisfies his loss of beauty. Yet the occupations can be made absolutely mechanical.

The teacher must look at the occupations from two points of view. She is anxious for his growth; she wants to give him something helpful. She looks at the Occupations from her standpoint as a teacher. She says to herself, How can I present these Occupations so as to help him gain greater mental grasp, greater power to express himself, etc.?

Now there is another standpoint. How does the child view the Occupations? As *material*, what possibilities do they hold for *him*, from *his own standpoint*? Why does he like to work or play with them?

Now, unless we hold firmly to *both* aspects, we will inevitably fail to secure the best results in growth of powers. We must secure our results, working through his interests, his *motives*. No matter how carefully we plan our work from the standpoint of what we wish the child to gain, we will not gain any valuable results unless we adapt it to those things which are actually of interest to his life. It must appeal to him in some definite way. Think of the *zest* he puts into his play. A child comes in, flops down, and gasps, "Oh, we have had such fun!"

A jolly little negro, playing by the road, was asked, "How old are you?"

"Well, if you goes by what mammy says, I'se six; but if you goes by the fun I'se had, I'se mos 'a hundred."

Now, I think the play element can be brought into an Occupation much more than is often done. This make-believe element is so strong that a suggestion enables him to weave his own romances

with whatever he works. We should have some definite object to be accomplished that is desirable from *his* standpoint.

One child makes a tree of plasticine, with bird's nest and eggs, and bird on the branch. He begs you to be very careful as you move it to the centre of the table because there are eggs in the nest. But to another child the practical side appeals more. He loves to construct something definite, which he can use—something with which he can play.

Take this folding, for instance. A sequence of symmetrical designs may be converted into a series of different picture-frames, for the doll's house or their own bedroom, pictures pasted in, and strings put on. This sequence can be evolved just as carefully. The child gets all the value from our standpoint and all the enthusiasm from his point of view.

Children enjoy the weaving so much more if the mats woven are made up into something he can carry home. A book-marker for father, a napkin ring, a carpet for the doll's house, a hair receiver for mother, baskets, booklets, trays, etc. If we use our ingenuity there are an endless variety of things into which our mats can be made very simply. We have found it stimulates the interest in weaving wonderfully to feel there is a definite result—not simply a mat woven to put away, but something made that can be used in play or otherwise. The children are so interested in the Red Cross just now, and are so pleased when they can make over the army material that I showed them a pattern made up of red crosses. It was a great delight, and one little girl asked to make another. I said yes, but questioned why. She said she wanted to send it to a cousin at the front she knew would like it.

In beginning the weaving we have found the use of half a linen mat very effective. It is so much easier to work with than the large mats for little fingers. So in Cutting and Construction work, have the work in relation to the child's life. That does not mean, you will not regard a logical process of development. Sequence, artistic form, free expression must all have their place, but they must be gained through the *play interest* of the child at this period.

From this 16 square basis the children can get innumerable forms, simple, with a definite process, yet capable of a great variety

of arrangements, which appeal to him as the old Froebelian cutting did not. What was valuable in the old Froebelian cutting, that is, the process of development, variety of arrangement of the same elements, can be gained through the symmetrical designs, in tablets, just as well. School sewing and folding give other opportunities for it. The Illustrative Cutting gives a training in the use of the scissors, in neatness, accuracy and cleanliness, and the Constructive work gives a good mental training, as it gives opportunity for thought in the construction and transformation.

Free Cutting we have used with our very little children, when they were first gaining control of the scissors. Unhampered by the lines, they move quickly, gained power to cut, and their symbolic imagination transformed very crude results into all sorts of animals and desirable objects. I would like to hear from some Kindergartners who have carried this into higher classes.

In School Sewing the work can be adapted in the same way. It is a rainy day; the children in a class in School Sewing are combining slanting lines. Would not a border of umbrellas be more interesting than a border of arrow-heads?

You say, what if it isn't a rainy day? Make colored sunshades or some other suitable thing.

Again, another class has been for a first spring walk around the grounds, and has discovered the crocuses in bloom. Why not sew a border of crocuses, even if it does not fall in with the sequence? It will be of great interest and help to impress this flower on the mind, giving him a point of departure for decorative art, with Nature materials.

Triangles can be transformed into Christmas trees, etc. The children will suggest for themselves. This is not to take the place of School Sewing processes, nor symmetrical designing. They have their place. In symmetrical designing care must be taken that at first things are very simple, small cards. These, with much repetition, are the natural results. Then, as they grow in power and consciousness of possibilities, give larger cards and encourage variety of design. Then you have to beware of repetition. Lead them to see what can be done. Their delight in a new design is intense. But never be betrayed into drawing a design for them. No Kindergartner can get through her course without knowing the

falsity of such work. If that is done, it cannot be ascribed to anything but laziness.

Story Work in Modelling and Coloring. I think there is a big field for work in the Kindergarten along this line, letting them illustrate freely favourite stories and nursery rhymes.

Little Boy Blue is a good illustration. Have children repeat the rhyme. Be sure that all objects mentioned are clear to the children—meadow, haystack, etc. Have the children close their eyes and tell you what they see. Tell your picture. Let them illustrate freely; great variety will be shown. Little Jack Horner, Old Mother Hubbard, and many others will suggest themselves for modelling. Any game or story may be used. It helps children to visualize. Care must be taken that forms are not *too minute*. Children have that tendency. Be satisfied with very crude results, if they tell the story as the child thinks it.

TENDENCIES OF MODERN WORK.

Enlarged material is established in all progressive centres, but we must be careful that it is not carried to extremes. Very large forms are quite as difficult for five-year-old children to control as the old fine work.

In Cutting, some of the designs published in the magazines are so large that children cannot hold them. The big pieces are awkward. They cannot stretch the hand across and hold firmly enough to cut well. For that reason, also, we cut the large mats in two, with great advantage.

The union of the Kindergarten Review into the Kindergarten and First Grade has its advantages and its disadvantages. It certainly helps us to appreciate the close relationship between the two, and to plan our work to lead up to that grade; but we must be careful that we distinguish between work to be done in the Kindergarten and in the First Grade. So often work that is suggested for Kindergarten and Grade work is far too difficult for five-year-olds. A sequence of paper cutting that was suggested not long ago was quite difficult enough for children nine and ten, instead of five and six.

We must decide what our children are capable of doing *intelligently*, and not allow ourselves to be led by attractive-looking novelties into requiring of children work that is beyond their power to accomplish independently.

*THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE PHASES OF
HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE AND THE PROPORTION
OF TIME EACH SHOULD RECEIVE.*

MISS NINA A. EWING, NORMAL SCHOOL, TORONTO.

If one should ask a little girl who is arrayed in white apron and cap the reason for her wearing such a uniform in school, the reply would probably be, "We have cooking to-day." In studying the time-table, however, which portrays the day's routine of work, one would not find "Cooking" mentioned. Was the child wrong? Yes and no. She was wrong in that, to be technically correct, she should have designated the work about which she was speaking as Household Science; but she was right in that the lesson to be taught her during the period set apart for this subject would most probably be cooking. To the general public, the terms Household Science and Cooking are synonymous. Our pupils limit the subject to that one phase because it is the phase they learn and see emphasized; the public gets its idea from the pupils, and from the fact that a Household Science room is always equipped as a kitchen. Even we, who are qualified to teach the subject, because we have given it special time and consideration, do not always appreciate what it includes, though we are filled with indignation when called "Cooking teachers."

What are the phases of Household Science? They are as far-reaching as all the interests of the home, as extensive as the necessities of the individuals making up the home; they are as broad as life—much too varied for us to enumerate. Such being the case, and it also being a necessity for us to get down to a practical basis, let us limit the subject and change it from the "Phases of Household Science" to the "*Phases of Household Science Which We Can Teach.*"

The name itself suggests what we should teach. The science of the house and all that it holds, i.e., the home and its occupants. Whatever may be related to either of these is a phase of Household Science. A brief glimpse at the outstanding facts of each of these main thoughts will suggest what these phases may be. In connection with the first main thought, the house, the primary consideration is

the site. This includes choice of locality, elevation, environment and soil. The next necessity is a plan for the home, involving a knowledge of architecture and building materials. The plan will also necessitate ideas of sanitation, which are dependent on the ventilating, lighting, heating, and plumbing systems installed. When completed, the house is ready to be furnished from kitchen to attic. The furniture should be chosen from standpoints of utility, form, color, durability and care. Then when all is placed, the daily use will entail the cleaning, which requires a knowledge of cleansing utensils, agents and methods.

The house will now be ready for the occupants or family for which it was prepared. But their arrival at once brings new responsibilities. The foremost one is the consideration of food, with all that it includes, namely, the production, marketing, storing, food-value, preparation and serving of it. Clothing will also be necessary; placing on the home-maker the responsibility of a foreknowledge of fabrics and needlework. The mind must be considered as well as the body, and an intelligent choice of church, school, amusements, books, and periodicals must be made to assist in this. The foregoing necessities are for a family in health; but in every household accidents and sickness are apt to occur, and to meet these the simple principles of first aid and home-nursing must be understood by the person in charge.

In brief, these, then, are the considerations or phases which our subject suggests, and of which we have to decide the relative importance. Broadly speaking, they are as follows: In connection with the *house*, (1) house-planning, (2) house-furnishing, (3) home sanitation, (4) cleaning in the home; in connection with the occupants or family, (1) questions of food, (2) clothing, (3) culture, (4) care in sickness. How do these range in value in relation to the well-being and development of the individuals whom we are training to make efficient home-makers and citizens?

Of the two main thoughts, all will agree that the occupants are of more importance than the house, and that in connection with them ideas affecting their health stand pre-eminent. For this reason I should place the question of *food* first, with its dependent thoughts graded as follows: 1, food value; 2, preparation (including cooking and serving); 3, production, marketing and care.

With the thought of health still in view, I should place the

phase of sanitation second, and this would necessarily take in certain ideas of cleaning. It would include questions of ventilation, lighting, heating and plumbing, the sanitary care of the house and surroundings, comprising disinfection in sickness.

Next in importance I should place the question of *clothing*, involving a knowledge of the source and manufacture of our *fabrics* and the sewing necessary to make them into garments and house-furnishings. The question of house-planning would come next, because the arrangement of rooms and placing of conveniences so vitally affect the time and energy of the people who are to use them, and the sun exposure and arrangements for ventilating and lighting so vitally affect their health.

House-furnishing, with the study of the sources and manufacture of materials required, would come last.

Let it be understood that although this, in my mind, is the grading as to importance of these phases of Household Science, it is not the order in which they should be taught, since some of them are too advanced for the children of the lower grades. For example, the last one, the study of the sources of materials used in house-furnishings, may be followed by the youngest pupils, those of the Third Form, while the questions of food, which I have put first in importance, could not be appreciated by them. Throughout the Public School course, the phases to be chosen are those which are most useful and necessary to the neighborhood and homes from which the children come. If the teacher has in mind a bird's-eye view of the training the subject *should* give, she can work towards it, and often in one lesson planned specially for one phase of the subject, she can incidentally teach ideas of several others. During the entire course concurrent with all lessons much physical, mental and moral training goes on as unconscious undercurrent.

In the Public School we have now three years in which to teach our subject, with one lesson a week of one and one-half hours' duration. In the Third Form one year, in the Junior Fourth Form one year, and in the Senior Fourth Form one year. How shall we apportion this time to the main phases which the subject presents? It is a difficult matter to decide, and one for which no hard and fast rules can be laid down.

I think, however, we are all agreed on one basis: That good

habits of muscular control can best be formed during the growth period, and that these habits are quite as important for the mental development as for the physical. Hence since the Public School years are all those of growth, the household occupations should proceed throughout the classes. These occupations are mainly sewing, cleaning and cookery, graded to suit the ages of the pupils and taught in Form III. for their mechanical value only.

The study of the sources and preparation of household materials should also be taken during the entire course, as occasion requires their use: First, the ordinary foods and cleansing agents which the children are handling, and later the materials used in house-building and furnishing as the planning and furnishing of the home is studied.

While the first year is filled only with simple mechanical operations, which progress into more difficult ones in the two later years, in the second year the pupils should begin to think also of the value of the materials they are handling. They should be given simple ideas of the value of each well-known food and this knowledge applied to the planning of simple meals; they should also know the reason for the use of certain cleansing agents. Simple ideas of sanitation should be taught and applied to their daily living and any part of the house-work at home which they may be able to manage, such as the airing of beds and night-clothing and the ventilation of their sleeping-rooms.

In the last year, while the household occupations continue, all of these should be carried out from standpoints of reason and judgment, and scientific ideas which are not dependent on too advanced knowledge should be explained. These will occur in such operations as the making of flour mixtures and the canning of fruit.

House planning and furnishing may begin in the first year, starting with the kitchen, and gradually in the other two years covering the main rooms of the house in a very broad way.

During the last year one or two lessons in home nursing may be given to apply to the care of the sick the knowledge already gained.

Graded needlework should continue throughout the course.

Since Household Science is so closely connected with every other subject on the school curriculum, it would be of immense advantage to the advancement of our classes and to the gaining of

time if the teachers of the other subjects would correlate their teaching with ideas of the home. It would not only be a gain to our work, but to their own work, and this would be shown in the additional appreciation and interest of their classes.

The above thoughts, to which I have directed your attention, are merely suggestive, and are to be used as a basis for discussion. Further ideas will now be presented by the two speakers who are to open the discussion.

SOLVING THE HIGH COST OF LIVING.

MRS. A. E. FAIRLIE, TEACHER, HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE, HAMILTON.

Since the inception of the Great War the term Efficiency and the part it must play in this life and death struggle has colored our whole outlook on life. What is Efficiency? Someone has defined it as the power to produce the best results at the lowest possible expenditure of time, labor and material. If this definition is correct, Economy or Thrift is the by-product of Efficiency, and we have found the key to the problem of the high cost of living.

The Mistress of the 20th Century Household must realize that she is managing a business, and must prepare to adopt business methods. It may be impossible for everyone to have special training along academic lines, but it is possible for all to have the far more valuable training of experience. She must have efficient administration, efficient work, efficient rest. Efficiency is a habit. A habit is consecutive, not spasmodic. We must realize we have disordered economic conditions at present which must be dealt with successfully.

Preparatory to solving the High Cost of Living, I should first advise a theoretical budget, apportioning the income to the various departments of living—food, clothing, etc. Keep itemized accounts and check budget monthly. There may be a shifting of values from one department to another, but it will at least regulate expenditure and point out the column for retrenchment.

The *first* requirement in regulating the high cost of living is the realization that *extravagance* is a sin, rendered doubly so by our duty in the present crisis, and that *economy* should not be a hardship. We must learn to deny ourselves pleasures and desires. In England the restrictions are compulsory; here, if undertaken voluntarily, they would be a wholesome corrective for many evils. This terrible time of trial should have taught us a proper appreciation of values.

Curtail all unnecessary expenditure. Live more simply. Dress more simply. Novelties in either food, dress or furnishings are not for persons of average income. They are usually expensive and ephemeral, and therefore extravagant.

Next to planning the budget and curtailing the style of living, I

would place efficient spending of income. The efficient housekeeper should study the markets and the fluctuations in prices as assiduously as the speculator. The purpose of taking food is to satisfy the cravings of hunger, to provide for the requirements of the body, and to gratify the legitimate sensations of the palate, therefore any saving in cost of food is economy, providing the food is of a kind suitable for nourishment, sufficient in quantity and attractive enough to be eaten with relish. Grocers declare that the demand of packages instead of in bulk, and the cost of delivery, has increased the last three years, has increased almost one-third; that housekeepers ordering once a day are in the minority, and that six orders in a day to one household are frequent. This gives a clue to the cause of the present prices, and the present state of affairs can only be remedied by mutual co-operations between dealer and consumer.

The careful housekeeper should personally supervise her own marketing and shopping, using the telephone order system as seldom as possible. This makes for variety, economy and good service. If a good many more Mrs. Buylows went to market they would have a better knowledge of food prices and food rotation. Buying in packages increases the housekeeper's expenses 50 per cent. She gains $7\frac{1}{2}$ pounds on every dollar's worth of oatmeal by buying in bulk, a gain of 100 per cent. on cream of wheat, while she can obtain 2 pounds of rice for the 15 cents she pays for a package of puffed rice, and the food value is not increased by puffing.

Paying cash is another aid to economy. Look carefully to the ways of the household, and have as many foods as possible manufactured at home. Home-made bread, cookies, jams, pickles and canned goods are cleaner, better, more economical, and free from adulterants, and one has the advantage of the by-products of their manufacture.

The third thing to consider in solving the high cost of living is the Preparation of Food, which comprises Food Combination and Cooking. There are three principal nutritive elements in food. Carbohydrates, fats and proteids. On these three depend the heat and body-building material. Hutchison gives the proportion for an average man doing light labor, at one part protein to about four and two parts carbohydrate and fats. By a little study of food constituents, an intelligent woman should be able to strike a good balance. The disposition nowadays is to think of food in terms of

calories. Someone says, "Eating is a pleasure, nourishment a bore." Study the personal inclinations of the family, and guide their tastes in the right direction. Avoid the cast-iron menu. Have variety of food, variety of preparation. Cook and season with care, and serve attractively. This is one of the greatest helps to economy. Flavorless foods fail to satisfy, while on the other hand the cheaper and not less nutritious foods satisfy the appetite. Sometimes a cheap ingredient may be substituted for an expensive one, and if carefully made, neither food-value nor attractiveness is lost. Professor Harcourt places oatmeal first on his list of comparative values, yet in many homes it is displaced by shredded wheat biscuit, corn flakes, etc.—more than twice the price, with one-third the food value. This is largely due to poor cooking. Balance the menus first as to food values; second, as to attractiveness. In the first place see that there is not an undue supply of any food principle; in the second place, balance a heavy course with a lighter, and *vice versa*.

ECONOMY OF MEAT.

Every housekeeper should have a knowledge of how to judge meat, and to recognize the different cuts. Eighty per cent. of the animal is composed of the cheaper but not less nutritious cuts. These need long, slow cooking, and may be prepared in a variety of ways. Vegetables and maccaroni cooked in stews, dumplings, meat-pies, puddings, bread crumbs, and cooked rice, etc., are incorporated with meat; savory dressings and gravies make meat go further. The French "*pot a feu*," literally "pot on the fire," with its savory messes made out of bits we throw away, follows the *poilu* to the firing-line, and if our returned soldiers introduce the pot on the fire to the Canadian kitchen, it will be an advantage. A soup course is a meat saver, and if a stock pot is kept it can be furnished with little additional expense. Proper cooking of meat, cooking at low temperature and not cooking too much, and skilful carving economizes meat. Every meat "left over" should be utilized and made into savoury dishes. Meatless days should be inaugurated and meat substitutes used. Fish and eggs will also reduce the meat bills.

EGG ECONOMY.

Get eggs, if possible, from the farmer, and pack in the early autumn, when prices are not so high. In winter use heavier puddings, that can be made without eggs. Make eggless cakes and

cookies. Substitute plain and fancy bread rolls, muffins, scones, hot biscuit, all of which can be made at home, for cakes. You will save sugar, also; make your own cream of tartar baking powder, and use more baking powder and less eggs. In making cakes for an institution, where they are eaten fresh daily, make the flour the standard; add baking powder, salt, rub in fat, add eggs beaten with milk to make it the proper consistency. Study consistencies and make your recipe fit your material. If care is taken in mixing and baking, excellent results are obtained.

MILK ECONOMY.

Do not stint milk. Milk at 10 cents a quart is a cheap food. Utilize every drop of milk. Skimmed milk may be used for milk and batter pudding, biscuits, cakes, etc. Buttermilk, sour milk may be used in the same way, except for milk puddings. In using sour milk for biscuit, use half as much soda as baking powder in the milk, and sift baking powder with the flour. Use Klim, which is powdered skim milk, for baking. Always cook milk in double boiler to avoid scorching.

ECONOMY OF BREAD.

Have bread made at home, and do not cut until next day. Keep in a tightly covered tin box. Use judgment in cutting, and save cut pieces for toasting; or if wrapped in oiled paper, it may be used again. Do not waste a scrap of bread. Stale bread or bread crumbs may be used in a variety of ways. In puddings, fondus, meat balls, pancakes, dressings, as croutons and bread sticks for soups, for egging and bread-crumbing for bread sauce and many other ways. Stale toast may be brushed with butter, crisped in the oven and eaten with soups. Stale cake may be used in trifles, puddings, etc.

ECONOMY OF FAT.

Fat is very expensive now, and there should not be carelessness in regard to it. Save the dripping from meat, the fat from the top of soup stock, or the water in which meat is boiled. Some may be simply strained, others need clarifying. Ham and bacon fat can be used as lard. Beef fat may be used with lard for frying, or used for sauteing, and it makes good ginger-snaps, mixed with softer fat. Sausage fat and chicken or turkey fat are delicious for bread crumb dressings, or for ginger or spice cakes, or for sauteing, where

the flavor does not offend. Lamb and mutton fat are excellent with lard for frying. All fat not used for cooking should be tried out in a clean pail, and used for soap. Use vegetable fats, household shortening, Easy First, etc. Make less pastry.

ECONOMY OF VEGETABLES.

The great value of fresh vegetables lies in the mineral salts they contain, a liberal supply of which is necessary to health. Have a garden if possible. Home-grown vegetables are better than those plucked some time. They can be secured at a moment's notice, and help to cut the weekly meat bill. Vegetables, as a rule, are very badly cooked—over-cooked or under-cooked. The valuable constituents are soluble in water, and unless the water is boiled down and used for soups or stew, these are lost. Take potatoes at their present price. It has been computed that the average loss in cooking pared potaoes is 1 pound in 5. Yet how many housekeepers boil them or bake them in their jackets. Left-over vegetables may be used in various ways, with vegetable water in soups, mixed with meat for meat balls, escalloped, alone or together in salads. Parts of vegetables too dry for use alone may be cooked with meat in a covered pan in the oven, or grated and used in soups. Vegetables should be canned in the autumn, and root vegetables used in the winter, thus lessening the grocery bill.

FRUIT ECONOMY.

Home-grown fruit is best when it can be obtained. Fruits are at their best when ripe and in season. Use them lavishly then. It is better for dessert in summer than pies or puddings. See your fruit before purchasing. Pick over larger fruits, and keep in a cool place. Turn small fruit on a platter and keep in a cool place. When fresh fruit is scarce, economize by making conserve with oranges, raisins, etc., rhubarb, apple and crabapple mix well with other fruits for jam or jellies. Make rhubarb and orange marmalades when in season. Use less sugar in canning, or put down without sugar. Utilize wild fruits, elderberries, raspberries, strawberries, when possible. A supply of winter apples kept in a cool place, dried fruits of different kinds, honey, syrup, etc., help out the canned fruit, and make it last until the arrival of the fresh fruit.

ECONOMY OF LIGHT AND FUEL.

Light and fuel bills absorb a large portion of the income, and should be economized. Turn off the light in your room when you leave it. Turn off all but the hall light when you leave the house. Turn off gas in stoves when not in use. Sift coal ashes and burn wastes in the furnace. Apples and potatoes may be baked, and other cooking done in the furnace. If a coal stove goes all night, bake beans, cook tough meat, or dried fruit in the oven. Plan to do several kinds of baking when the oven is heated, or if coal or wood is used when baking, have some slow cooking done on the top of the stove. Look after the draughts carefully in the stoves and furnace. Use the fireless cooker when practicable.

To sum up Learn the Economy of the Kitchen. "Enough of everything and not too much of anything." Small left-overs make a large aggregate of cost in the month. Outside the food question: Have laundry, sewing, etc., done at home as much as possible; have clothing, shoes, utensils, etc., repaired at once. Take proper care of everything, thus prolonging the life of clothes and furniture. Economize in doctor's and dentist's bills by having good wholesome food and taking care of the health.

Let the male members of the household do their share by accepting the reduced style of living with becoming philosophy and cutting down the 101 small extravagances of which they are scarcely conscious. Thus, having efficiency and economy as the governing principles of the household, let every member of the family co-operate with but one end in view—a vehement desire to "do his bit" in helping to win this war, and the solving of the High Cost of Living will be practically assured, and will incidentally create stronger and more independent characters to take up the burdens of the future.

SUBSTITUTES FOR MEAT.

PROFESSOR R. HARCOURT, ONTARIO AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, GUELPH.

(An Abstract.)

Meats are a valuable but expensive part of our diet. Valuable because of their flavor and general condimental effect, but mainly for the store of highly digestible nutrients they contain, and expensive because they furnish only reformed constituents which were first built up by the plants that formed the food of the animal. We perhaps cannot get any substitutes that will entirely replace the condimental effect of meats, but we can substitute other materials that will furnish more protein and heat units for a given amount of money. At present prices a dollar spent on rolled oats will furnish about four times as much protein or flesh-forming material, as the same amount of money spent on sirloin steak and good spring wheat flour; skimmed milk and buttermilk will supply nearly five times as much protein as the steak. At 8 cents a quart, milk furnishes protein at about half, and beans at 10 cents a pound at one-third of the cost in steak.

Comparing the value of the foods on the basis of their ability to produce heat and energy in the body, 11 cents spent on oatmeal, 12 cents on flour, 19 cents on bread, 24 cents on skimmed milk, 25 cents on beans, 35 cents on whole milk, and 50 cents cheese will reproduce as much energy as one dollar's worth of sirloin steak.

Too much stress cannot be laid on the fact that the cereal grains furnish our cheapest foods. That they are cheaper than meat is readily accounted for when it is pointed out that years of experiments have proven that it takes 4.5 pounds of mixed grains to produce one pound of live weight of hog, which means that it takes at least seven pounds of grain to produce one pound of edible pork material. The seven pounds of grain contains more than five times as much protein and will furnish over four times as many calories of heat as the meat produced from it. The protein, fat, carbohydrates and ash are all formed in the plant. The animal cannot construct these, only transform them into animal tissue, heat and energy, and as a result only about 20 per cent. of the original material is recovered as food. In the present time of food shortage it is clear why we should seek to retain as much as possible of the grains for human consumption. It also makes clear why the British Government demand that their millers furnish 81 pounds of flour for every 100 pounds of wheat ground, thus securing 11 per cent. more material for human food than under the old system of milling.

THE DAILY DIET.

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This is a very broad subject and one that may be considered from many standpoints. We will limit our discussion of it to some phases of the problem as related to our elementary school children.

The daily diet of our school children is of vital concern if our country is to prosper. If we are to have a strong, efficient race we must see to it that our children are well nourished. Both the mind and the body are undergoing fairly rapid development during the school age, and malnutrition at this time often tells on the whole after life. In appearing before a Royal Commission in England, Hutchison gave it as his opinion that the most critical time—after passing infancy—as far as nutrition was concerned, was the school period between ten and fifteen years of age.

Just after the Boer War, England's eyes, as a nation, were opened to the great importance of efficiently feeding growing children. When, in 1902, Major General Maurice announced that only two out of every five men who applied for admission to the British army were "physically fit," England was naturally greatly exercised, and it was said quite freely in the United States that England was facing the problem of national deterioration—that the end of her supremacy had begun, and that she was repeating the history of Rome. As a result of this startling condition of affairs, the British Parliament appointed a Royal Commission to inquire into the physical training in the schools, and to try to discover why the men were physically unfit. After examining very carefully and very thoroughly into the cause of this physical unfitness, the conclusions reached were that there were at least three factors that affected the vitality of the nation—housing, occupation, and feeding, the most important one being the feeding. They examined the physical training from the universities down to the elementary schools, and found it all right, but found many children, on account of malnutrition, not able to profit by it, and in some cases they found that while the physical training was good in itself, it was doing

actual harm. Further commissions were appointed. The voluntary work being done in the feeding of school children was studied and found inadequate to meet the need, and as a result of all these investigations the "Provision of Meals Act" was passed by the British Parliament in December, 1906. This Act provided that school authorities might appropriate money for school lunches, and it applied to England and Wales. Scotland has her own school feeding law. It is worth while to note that this was the first bit of legislation growing out of the alarm regarding the physical deterioration of the people. Other legislation followed.

The problem that faces one is not to relieve "acute hunger," but to relieve "chronic malnutrition." This school feeding is only touching the fringes of things, and it by no means insures proper feeding for the children it reaches, but that it has proved a help is shown by the action of the London County Council at the outbreak of war in August, 1914. The elementary schools of London had closed Friday, July 31st, for holidays to September 24th. The following day Germany declared war; on August 4th England declared war on Germany, and on Thursday, August 6th, the London papers announced that the schools would reopen Monday, August 10th, and quite definitely stated that if there was to be war, the feeding of the children must be looked to, and the only way to do it was to bring them back to school.

When one picks up the daily paper here, one is struck by the large percentage of our men who offer themselves who are rejected as physically unfit, and if we accept England's finding as the cause, the most important factor for this extremely serious condition of affairs is "bad feeding."

This "bad feeding" not only affects the physical well-being, but the mental and moral as well. Insufficient or over-nutrition has as much to do with breakdown at school as overstudy has. Clearness of the brain to study depends on proper nourishment, and, no doubt, the so-called stupidity or backwardness of many children in the public schools is simply the result of neglect and underfeeding. If malnutrition during the growing period means a handicap for the rest of life, surely it follows that it is of vital importance to any nation that its growing children be well fed. The daily dietary of our school children is one of the big problems.

Let us consider the causes of malnutrition. Generally speaking, they may be classified under three headings—ignorance and thriftlessness, poverty, criminal neglect. No doubt some cases of malnutrition are due to criminal neglect, and many are due to poverty, but many, many more are because of ignorance and thriftlessness. Ignorance is undoubtedly the main cause. Investigators have found malnutrition especially marked among school children; that the people understood more about feeding the younger children, and in many cases children going to school were left to shift for themselves.

As a result of ignorance or poverty, we may have insufficient food, and this no doubt is the cause of much malnutrition; but unsuitable food is probably responsible for many more cases.

In many of the poorest homes the diet is mainly one of bread and tea and highly seasoned canned goods. In many homes, where poverty is not a cause, the mother will say, "The father is the principal bread-winner, and his strength must be maintained at all costs; he must be considered first," and the result is food that he likes is prepared and forms the children's diet; the food may be wholesome, but unsuitable for children.

Food may be unsuitable because of kind. It is very frequently lacking in cell-building elements. Again, it may be unsuitable because of improper or poor cooking. Badly cooked food is said to cause more disastrous results during youth than at any other period of life. Without good cooking, indigestion and constipation or diarrhoea results, and a vast amount of strength is wasted in the efforts of nature to overcome the difficulties placed upon her. Not only is there present discomfort and loss of power, but often organs are permanently injured. "A poor dinner well cooked is better than a good dinner indifferently cooked."

Another cause of malnutrition due to ignorance is irregular meals. It is said that in the homes of many work people the children never sit down at the table. They go and get a piece when they want it, and stand up or walk around while eating it. Regular meals, properly distributed over the twenty-four hours, are necessary.

Again, malnutrition may, through ignorance, be due to want of sufficient sleep. Taking the results of the respiration calorimeter

experiments, a grown person requires, when in bed asleep, $\frac{1}{2}$ calorie per pound per hour, and $\frac{3}{4}$ calorie per pound per hour when awake and sitting up, but doing nothing while the amount increases rapidly when muscular work is done. The child's requirement is more per lb. of bodily weight, so that if the child stays up two or three hours longer than it should, the fuel requirement is considerably increased. It therefore follows that lack of sufficient sleep is especially bad for undernourished children. Then, too a child's nervous system requires rest and quiet. For instance, moving picture shows in the evening are not conducive to rest, or sleeping in a room with four or five others may be disturbing.

The lack of fresh air is another contributory cause. We need plenty of fresh air in order to make the best use of the food we eat—fresh air during the daytime and also at night.

Through ignorance of all these points and of sanitation we have malnutrition and various kinds of disease, and the question is what can we as Household Science teachers do to improve this condition of affairs?

If ignorance is the main cause—ignorance of the needs of the body, of food values, of how to prepare foods, etc.—it follows that if we are going to help matters permanently, we must educate the people, we must make an impression on the home, and raise the standard of living. Something toward this end can be done through the school.

In England they found that children had to be taught to like simple, wholesome food. For instance, in one special experiment in Bradford, forty of the most needy children were taken and given breakfasts and dinners. Only one child out of forty had ever eaten oatmeal, and that one was a Scotch child. The first day thirteen refused to try the oatmeal; the second day all but two tried it; and from that on all enjoyed it, and were not pleased if porridge was not served. Similarly, in one of the London schools, when porridge was first introduced, they had great difficulty in getting the children to taste it; but after a little time it became very popular, and a lady made inquiries from a number of grocers in the neighborhood and found that their sales of oatmeal had greatly increased. The serving of oatmeal at the school breakfast had led to the introduction of this food into many homes. We should defi-

nitely try to improve home feeding through our work in the schools. This I think should be a definite aim of cookery in the Public School, and it seems to me the work at present fails to accomplish what it should in this respect.

If cookery is to be taught for its value as handwork, why include it in the Public School curriculum? Other subjects that require less equipment would do just as well. If cookery is to be taught merely as a cultural subject, and for its mental training, why add another subject to an already overcrowded curriculum, and particularly at a time when the children are too immature to reason out the why and the wherefore? If the aim is merely to learn to cook a few odd dishes, it surely has no place on the Public School or any other curriculum. Such a method of teaching the subject encourages bad dietetic habits rather than good ones. As I said before, the English Commission appointed to inquire into the causes of physical deterioration found in some schools the physical training, while good in itself, did positive harm on account of the condition of the children, and we should face the fact that it is possible to teach cookery as the making of dishes and do harm rather than good by teaching things that may be all right in themselves, but entirely out of place as far as the children in the schools are concerned. To me there is only one end that justifies the introduction of cookery into our Public Schools, and that is the definite aim to increase the efficiency of the child, and, through the child, the nation. If it is made, as Mrs. Richards used to say, the "fourth R"—Right Living—then it has a reason to be; but if not, its place is not in the Public School, but in the High School, where the girl is more mature and can understand the subject matter better. This phase of the work is introduced in our Public Schools mainly because such a large per cent. of our children never get to the High School, so that if the help is to be given, it must be in the Public School. We may help the child by teaching the preparation of foods suitable for growing children, and except in very rare cases, omitting dishes they are better without. The dishes taught should be simple and adapted to the financial conditions of the children's homes. The dishes should be taught as an integral part of a meal. It is the meal that is the important thing for these children; a logical study of foods can be better given in the High School.

Whenever possible, one should have the actual preparation of simple meals.

Another very important point is that the dishes taught should be repeated over and over until the children become proficient. One does not teach the multiplication tables by going over them once, and we do not expect a child to learn anything else by having one lesson on it; but apparently many Household Science teachers think this possible in cookery. They teach a lesson, say on bread, and consider that they have taught breadmaking. This is unwise from whatever point you view it. It is against all the principles of teaching, and makes the children restless. They are always wanting something new. Children will repeat the same or a similar dish over and over, if presented as a part of a meal.

The question of expense is important. It is a farce to attempt to teach practical foods if one has so little to spend that the children cannot get practice. On the other hand, we must remember that it is not encouraging thrift and may do harm to teach poor children something beyond the means of the family. For instance, eggs, even at 36 cents a dozen, come to 4 cents for a 100 calorie portion. This is quite beyond the reach of poor people, and the dishes taught should be suitable with respect to the financial condition of the homes of the children. I grant that there is a minimum, and an ever-increasing minimum, necessary for efficient feeding, but there is also the wise spending of what one has, and the Household Science teacher should estimate what is a fair amount for the average family, in her school section, to be spending on raw food materials, and govern her choice of dishes accordingly. The children should be taught to buy wisely, and to make the fullest possible use of what is bought—the care of food materials, the use of left-overs, etc., must not be neglected.

Having noted the importance of the daily diet, and of the teacher keeping this end in view, let us briefly consider the foods suitable for school children and especially for the period from eight to twelve years of age.

Milk is one of the best foods for children of all ages. A factory inspector in England, after careful and continued measurements of factory children between the ages of thirteen and sixteen, found that those who had milk for breakfast and supper grew four times as

much as those who used tea or coffee. Without milk, the diet is likely to be lacking in lime and other body-building material, and also may be lacking in certain substances needed for growth—growth vitamins. One and a half pints of milk a day can be continued until the full physical growth is reached. The milk may be taken as a beverage, on cereals, in milk soups, in simple desserts as rice and other farinaceous puddings with milk, custards, simple ice creams such as milk sherbet or custard ice cream. Ice cream made from thick cream is too rich for children.

Cereals should form a part of the daily diet. Thoroughly cooked porridge, made from the whole grain, such as rolled oats or rolled wheat, provides needed mineral matter and cellulose. Ready-to-eat cereals should be used only very occasionally. In an experiment in Sheffield, England, they took three groups of children from the same school. The first group came from better homes and were not given school breakfasts, but were weighed regularly. The average gain per child per week for these children having all their meals at home was 2.09 ounces. The second and third groups were children from poorer homes, and they were provided with breakfasts at school. The children in the second group were not given porridge, and their average gain per week was only 1.58 ounces, while the third group, whose homes were similar to those in the second group, were given porridge, and their average gain was 3.31 ounces a week—a considerable gain over the children who came from better homes.

Bread should be served as stale bread or crisp toast, and the child taught to masticate it thoroughly. Fresh or hot breads do not belong in the child's diet, and even after twelve years of age it is advisable to use them sparingly. Crusty rolls and small cornmeal or Graham muffins (small to increase the proportion of crust) are the best forms of hot breads. It is considered advisable to omit griddle cakes, waffles and tea biscuit until the child is at least fourteen years of age.

Fresh fruits and vegetables are very important. Without them the diet may be lacking in base-forming elements, in mineral ingredients and in cellulose. Any mild, raw or cooked fruit may be used, but it is wise to avoid very acid fruit or to use it sparingly. The vegetable should be thoroughly cooked in such a manner as to avoid the loss of important constituents, and should be served in a simple manner; rich sauces should be avoided.

If plenty of milk is used in the diet there is no need for a large amount of flesh food, and there are serious objections to a too liberal amount. A very small serving is sufficient, and the meat should be simply prepared. Rich meats, as pork and dried meats, should be avoided. Eggs cooked in a simple manner—never fried—are an important food, and should be used when possible. Unfortunately, their price is frequently prohibitive.

The most desirable desserts are bread and cereal puddings, blanc manges, junkets, custards and occasionally ice cream. It is better to omit pastry. When pastry is used, the baking of the crust is very important. Experiments indicate that the thorough baking of the crust makes considerable difference in the ease of digestion. A thoroughly baked, one-crust pie is to be preferred.

Cake in the form of plain or gingerbread cookies, sponge cake, and plain cake, may be included, but rich cake has no place in a child's diet.

Sweets should be taken at the end of a meal and not between meals.

Fats, such as butter and thin cream, are very valuable, and it is advisable to serve them as simple fats rather than to use them in cooking. That is, use the butter on bread or vegetables and the cream on cereals or desserts. Tried-out bacon fat, if not overheated, makes a good fat to spread on bread or to use with baked potato. However, while fats are important foods, foods fried in fat should be omitted from a child's diet.

Condiments such as pepper, and stimulants as tea and coffee, are not needed, and have no place in such a diet.

The following is a suggestive food plan for a child from eight to twelve years of age, the daily fuel requirement being from 1,700 to 2,400 calories:

Breakfast.

	Calories.
Fruit, fresh, stewed or baked.....	50—100
Porridge.....	100—150
Dry toast or stale bread.....	75—150
Butter or other fat.....	50—100
Milk to drink and on porridge.....	150—250
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	450—750

Dinner.

Flesh food or substitute, as egg.....	50—100
Potatoes or substitute, as rice, steamed banana, etc.....	75—100
Green vegetables.....	10— 50
Bread.....	75—200

	Calories
Butter or other fat.....	50—150
Dessert.....	150—200
Milk to drink or as soup.....	100—200
	<hr/>
	650—1000

Supper.

Cereal as rice, cream of wheat, etc., or cream soup, or other suitable dish.....	200—300
Bread.....	75—200
Butter or other fat.....	50—150
Dessert or stewed fruit, with or without cake.....	150—200
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	500—850

The estimated fuel value gives one approximately the minimum and maximum portions to be served.

Similar food plans may be worked out for children of different ages, the portions served being calculated to accord with the following table of requirements.

Age	Calories from Protein required (per lb. of body weight.)	Total Calories required (per lb. of body weight.)
5 years.....	3—4 calories.....	35—37 calories
6 years.....	4 calories.....	34—36 calories
7 years.....	4 calories.....	32—35 calories
8 and 9 years.....	4 calories.....	30—35 calories
10 and 11 years.....	4 calories.....	28—32 calories
12 and 13 years.....	3 calories.....	25—30 calories
14—17 years.....	3 calories.....	20—25 calories

MANUAL ART SECTION.

INDUSTRIAL ART.

JOHN GRAHAM, TORONTO CENTRAL TECHNICAL SCHOOL.

My subject is "Art from the Point of View of a Craftsman." The title, as printed, reads, "Industrial Art." I let it go at that, so that I might call attention to a custom that does a great deal of harm: I mean the custom of splitting art up into different sections. We have "Fine Art," "Industrial Art," "Applied Art," "Commercial Art," and I don't know how many more. The public mind is hazy enough in its ideas concerning all art matters, and those unnecessary classifications do not help to make the public mind any less foggy.

There is only one kind of art, "Good Art." The only distinction between one kind of art and another, that I have ever seen recorded, and that I could understand, I saw in one of the textbooks published by an American Correspondence School. On one page was shown a fairly good drawing of a human hand. It was called "Hand for use in Serious Art." On the opposite page was a bad drawing of the same hand. This was inscribed "Hand for use in Comic Art."

This subject is one around which there rages at all times a storm of conflicting opinions, especially concerning the way in which it should be taught.

Quite a large number of tangled opinions concerning the methods used for the teaching of Art in the Public Schools, that are at present flying hither and thither, would find a common resting place, by an agreement to put the word "Drawing" in place of the word "Art." It is far too commonly supposed that the teaching of drawing and painting is teaching "Art." To realize that this is *not* so, will clear up that, and a number of other misconceptions, regarding the subject.

There are scores of people who can draw and paint very well

yet are utterly lacking in the artistic faculty. All children can be taught to draw much more easily than they can be taught to write. Writing is really drawing, but it is the drawing of forms that, in themselves, have no meaning, nor interest, for the children. How much more readily they would take to the drawing of the shapes of things they knew well.

All children *should* be taught to draw at the same time as they are taught to write, but it should be quite understood that, because a child develops a faculty for drawing, it is not necessarily a heaven-sent artistic genius, any more than an aptitude on the part of the child for forming letters and words indicates an embryo poet or author.

There are scores of people with strong artistic feeling who cannot either draw or paint. Drawing and Painting are not the only means of artistic expressions, yet when we speak of an Artist, we immediately picture to ourselves someone drawing, painting or modelling.

And we also picture to ourselves a man with his head in the clouds, a poor unpractical dreamer who hasn't got enough sense to put up his umbrella when it rains, who knows nothing of business, is unmethodical, unorthodox, untidy, and un-everything else. If he is simple-minded, we cheat him first and pity him afterwards. We have been, on the whole, so tolerant of his foibles that he has come to take himself seriously, and now he has turned the tables on us by not only expecting tolerance but demanding homage—but I am anticipating.

If you will bear with me for a few moments, I would like to give you a little Art History. I can assure you it will not be a bit like school history. The History of Art is not a deadly dull record of kings, queens, battles, and dates, written by men hundreds of years after the events, and made up mostly of surmises. Art History is the record of races, unconsciously written by themselves, and until we burn all our School Histories and teach the History of Art instead, our children must continue, to a large extent, ignorant of the true story of those who have gone before them.

In the early days, the days that produced the works of art, that we now use as models for our pupils, artists were trained in workshops, not in studios or schools. They were apprenticed to masters,

in whose shops they were taught the practice of their art, and from whom, in daily association and assistance, they gathered the theory that governed that practice. Those masters were architects, sculptors, silversmiths, woodworkers, plasterworkers, were, in fact, masters of Art in all materials. The result was that their apprentices gained an extensive knowledge of all the Arts that lend themselves to artistic expression, and gained that knowledge in a thorough manner. One apprentice might take more readily to painting, one to sculpture, one to silverwork, and so on, but no matter what branch the apprentice favored, his working knowledge of the others was the secret of his power in the one of his choice.

This custom gave us the great workers, and the great works of the 13th, 14th and 15th centuries. The great mass of painting done at this time was done for the decoration of specific places, but later, in the 16th century, we find the art workers tending more and more towards specializing in one branch of art only. Now, a modern would naturally conclude that such a course would tend to the improvement of art. That that, to which a man devotes his whole time must necessarily be better done than work which he only takes up intermittently. Well! That might be true concerning, say, the mixing of mortar (although I am not sure that it would be even then), but it is certainly not true concerning Art, and as certainly as this change from the old method took place, we find a gradual deterioration in the quality of work done. Doubtless political and social influences led to the change. Works of art were executed, so that, in restless and unstable social conditions, they might be easily removed to a place of safety. Whatever the cause, or causes, the change narrowed the work of the artists into the expressing of what thoughts they had on small isolated canvases, that were subject only to the criticism and limited by the taste, of the wealthy patrons for whom the artists worked.

The criticism and the appreciation of the *whole people* to which the earlier masters were subject, and which kept their ideals up to a very high standard, gave place to a condition where the artist's only care was centred on pleasing the whims of an individual. The time of the Louis' in France was marked by a culmination of this decadence into the vulgarities of the Rococo. The same decadence came in Britain in the 17th and 18th centuries. There was some hope of bettermen at the end of the 17th century, but the German

Georges came in, who, as one of their number said, did not care for "Boetry nor Bainting." The fashion on the part of the people, of following the taste, or lack of taste, of the court, became very prevalent, and the coarse affectations which characterized the royal surroundings of that day may still be seen in a few of their many palaces. The canker of industrialism also came in, binding art and all other gracious influences in its grip. In a land where wealth accumulates and men decay, Art cannot live, and it sank to a very low ebb indeed in early and mid-Victorian times. Then came the prophet John Ruskin, and to him we owe whatever sanity we have in our artistic tendencies now.

By the change that took place, Art was divorced from the actualities of life, and relegated to the mean position of luxury. Our knowledge of what Art should be, and what we see it actually is, leads us into all sorts of confused notions concerning it. The artist to-day is what we have made him. A man, removed from the rough and tumble of every-day life, a delicate plant, shivering at the touch of such mundane things as concern his fellow-men. In the world, but not of it. Standing aloof from all civic affairs, all national affairs, lest their crudeness spoil the dainty sensitiveness of his soul, and possibly nip in the bud some great thought struggling for expression. We have fed this vanity, this pose, by our indifference to all Art matters ourselves. The artist has enveloped himself in a halo of nebulous mystery, and we have looked on the halo as sacred. We are now suffering for our credulity.

What have we got in return for this blind faith of ours in the sanctity of the ultra-artist? Surely out of all our worship and national grants there should come some tangible results. The only visible evidence that anything accrues from our expenditure of money and faith, is an annual exhibition of pictures, resplendent in gold frames, which exhibition is open for a few weeks only. If we assume that all the pictures at an exhibition are good (which is a fairly generous assumption), what man among us is prepared to say that he gets anything like a lasting impression from any picture after a few hours' observation of it. Looking at pictures in an exhibition is a ridiculous waste of time, as all pictures compete with one another in color and theme, and if they didn't, a crowded room is hardly the place to induce a contemplative frame of mind, which condition is the only one in which to *study* pictures, or anything else.

The most disappointing result of our endeavors to, as the newspapers put it, "propagate a love of Art among the people," is that our present system defeats its object in a serious and unfair way. All the people join in the monetary sacrifice for Art, yet only a very small number of the people can afford to avail themselves of whatever benefit there might come from the possession of pictures; they can only become the property of the very wealthy.

But the saddest result of this decadence of Art is that the artist has removed himself from the ranks of the people. He is now one of the aristocracy. With this removal has been acquired the habit of despising the ordinary workman. The only craft that is considered "good form" is the craft of painting, and that craft only when it is practised on canvas, and not too large a canvas. If the craft is practised on walls or on a very large canvas, an "ordinary workman" is called in to the preparatory work, else the artist loses caste. Art began to deteriorate when the artist ceased being a workman. It has become decadent now because the artist despises the workman.

I have purposely dwelt on this phase of present-day conditions because I look on that attitude as the most pernicious that all art workers, and especially art teachers, have to fight. Most of what is written and a good deal of what is spoken about Art, is written and spoken from this ultra-academic point of view. But in recent years I have never encountered a worse instance of this attitude in action, than within the pages of the "Manual of Art" given to the public school teachers, from which they are to dole out "Art" to the unfortunate children who are to be the next generation of workers. I have no idea who the compilers are. I think it is the duty of every ratepayer, when he sees public money spent uselessly or dangerously, to publicly call attention to the fact. I think this book is unfit for its purpose, and I beg to call the attention of all those who are interested in education to the fact. It is the second text-book issued by the Department of Education that I have read. The first was a book on "Manners." I am bound to say that the books fit one another. The pupils who have digested the "Manners" of the one, are the only ones fit to receive the "Art" of the other. It bristles with ideas concerning Art, that will cost the Board of Education a good deal of money in teachers' time before they can be removed from the minds of the unfortunate children who absorb them. In speaking

to a teacher of Mathematics the other day, the conversation turned, as it will do sometimes, on Art. "Oh," said he, "don't talk to me about Art. When I was eleven years of age I was asked to illustrate the quotation, 'The Swan on still St. Mary's Lake, floats doubly, swan and shadow,' and because I couldn't do it, I was plucked, and lost a year of my life. I don't want to hear anything about Art." He was joking about his indifference to the subject, but the incident was true. If that subject were set to the professional artists of the country, I doubt if 100% marks would be gained by more than two or three contestants.

It is little wonder that those who have the responsibility of our national or municipal affairs begin to have doubts about the wisdom of spending money on the "Propagation of Art Among the People," when the only activities that can be seen consist in afternoon teas and chatter, or banquets and highfalutin speeches about the "Moral Influences of a National Art." The danger lies in the doubts remaining in the state of doubts, and that no real interest will be shown. After all, to the great mass of the people, official as well as laymen, Art is a "frill" with no real influence on the moral, or spiritual, and less than none on the trade welfare of the country. As I have tried to show, the people may be excused if they hold this view. I will now try to show why they must hold this view no longer.

John Ruskin, the seer, came, lived, worked, and died, a broken and disappointed man, who is but now coming to his own. His message may be summed up in his own words, "Life without industry is Guilt. Industry without Art is Brutality."

His mantle fell on William Morris, who, in his own life, proved that true art can be combined with true trade, and both be successful. Morris passed on the torch to Walter Crane. Now he, too, has gone; but the work they all began is still carried on by little fraternities of fervent men who are yearly growing greater in numbers, and influence, and dignity of workmanship. The teaching of all those men was in direct opposition to the popular ideas concerning art, and those who follow in their footsteps are still having the same fight as they had; but, thanks to their great efforts, the struggle is daily becoming less hard.

The new thought is, just as usual, a retracing of our steps to the old and tried ideas that have given the world whatever of good

in Art, it possesses. It may be broadly outlined as follows:—

When the Creator decreed that man should earn his bread by the sweat of his brow, He tempered the decree with the gift of Art, that, though man's work should be hard, it might still be joyful. As long as a man is allowed to express himself in his daily work, he is happy. Take the joy out of work and misery follows. Bad social conditions have always coincided with decadence in Art. Where the workers have been oppressed by the despotism of courts, or the infinitely worse despotism of industrialism, the arts have languished. The cult of power as an end in itself, coarse material standards of trade, the sinking of the man in the machine, and the worship of an "efficiency" that destroys the souls as well as the bodies of men, are all enemies to artistic development. Art cannot breathe the same atmosphere as materialism. All the laws of Art are in direct opposition to modern commercialism. Therefore every effort to develop true artistic principles strikes at the sordid meannesses of the materialist, and blazes a way towards happier and more useful lives for all the people. Such is, broadly, the creed of the forward minds in Art to-day, and their motto might well be "*Labor omnia vincit*," for they aim at making the artist take off his velvet coat and don his overalls, get himself imbued with a little of the spirit of Michael Angelo (who, like all true artists, would rather do things himself than be bothered with assistants), close up his studio, with its deep pile carpet, downy chesterfield, and chintz curtains, open a workshop and hang up a sign which tells the world what, of useful work, he can do with his hands, as well as his head, that both are governed by his heart, *therefore*, he will do good work, whether he live or die. The artist of the coming time will not sneer at trade. He will himself be a good tradesman; that is, he will trade fairly. He will *not* be a good "business man" in the modern sense. All his dealings will be on the same basis as his Art (that is, based on Truth). If he has to touch modern business methods at all, he will touch them with an extremely long pole, charged with disinfectant. He will be a thoroughly practical man. He will, during his training, have tried his hand at all the crafts, but will have made himself master of one. By that craft he will earn his livelihood, and know for the first time what the joy of creation is. The man who has not made with his own hand some useful and beautiful thing, even though he may have passed through a dozen universities, is still an

uneducated man. He is still unconscious of what dignity there is in labor. He does not yet know what happiness is; and no matter how he may prate about Art, it is still a closed book to him.

Quite hopeful progress towards making good craftsmen of artists has been made in the older countries, but what has been done has been entirely without help from the Official Art Departments; in fact, it has been done in many cases despite their opposition. Small groups of craftsmen have banded themselves together into guilds, and have executed work that has set a standard, unattainable by the ordinary commercial company. Those guilds are run on the motto of the Companions of St. George, "Do Good Work if You Live or Die."

In one or two cases, where guilds deteriorated into commercial concerns, they promptly died, but the greatest benefits arising from their formation is that they provide admirable training grounds for students, who eventually break away into good individual practice, or group together into guilds in new places. Something of that kind should be our ideal. Let our Art instruction culminate in the production of an efficient craftsman, so that in expressing himself in his craft he may do some tangible good to his country. We may then hope to get back to something like sanity in the design and construction of our homes and public buildings. There is just as much room for artistic expression in woodwork, plaster work, metal work, leather work, steel work, or concrete, as there is on square yards of canvas. The man who says that he is limited by his material hasn't grasped any glimmering of the meaning of Art. Let us handle those materials in a big way, a workmanlike way, not in the tentative, tinkering way indulged in by the young ladies of both sexes at present.

That the work of such craftsmen is needed, only those who have had to hunt for them know. Hitherto we have been satisfied with the manufactured products of the large commercial concerns.

We are now finding out, what the reading of Art history could have told us any time, that no good work is ever done except for the joy of doing it, and there is no joy in making things for profit instead of for use. The hall-mark of a work of Art is that it contains part of the soul of the artist. That is sentiment, and we know (and if we didn't, the business man soon tells us) that there is no

sentiment in business. That is the reason there is no soul in factory work. When any of us want furniture we find that we can get miles and miles of it from the great factories, but it is all the kind without soul. When we want that (and sooner or later we do, unless we take root), we find that it has to be brought from the same place from which most of ourselves have come. Britain is still the source of all the best things; but Britain, in the coming time, is not going to have enough to serve her own needs, and we, her sons, having proved that we have inherited her grit, can surely show that we are not deficient in foresight, by getting ready our armies of peace as we have our armies of war.

We are very anxious to be sufficient to ourselves. We have put the "Made in Canada" mark on our goods, but that mark on bad goods is a poor advertisement, and our goods are bound to be bad unless we train our men. If we want to start an industry of any kind, the first, or one of the first, things we have to do is to find the art director for the firm. He will be in charge either of the making of the products or advertising them. Where are we going to get the man? We must remember that our home-made products must compete with those of other countries, and they all will have trained craftsmen. Hitherto we have looked to the older countries of Europe to supply us with trained men. We need look there no longer, because they, for the next twenty years, will need all their own. The States have not nearly enough for their own market. They are stealing from us when they can.

There was a census taken a few years ago of the efficient artist craftsmen in the States. They numbered seven, and only one was native-born. I visited a large firm of furniture-makers in Edinburgh in 1914. They were then buying back every piece of their own make of furniture that they could get their hands on, because, as the head of the firm told me, they had now no craftsmen capable of turning out such work, and no more were being trained.

This scarcity of trained men is caused by the industrial system having driven them into factories in earlier days, thus killing the apprentice system. That system has gone, for the present at least, and it behooves us to make the schools take the place of the workshop.

One is often told that there is no demand in this country yet for good craftsmanship. This question usually comes from those

whose ideas of good artistic workmanship would be covered by the phrase "Fancy workmanship." Just as soon as there are men to do the work, the work will be there to their hand. In the whole course of my thirty years' experience of craft work I have never known an efficient craftsman who was not crowded out with work. Under present condition, what good work is to be had is in the giving of the architects, and no architect is going to recommend to his clients such work as he knows he cannot get executed.

And now comes the consideration of *how* we are to produce the craftsmen.

Our first care must be to rid our minds of the supposition that Art is an airy, unpractical thing. That idea, I find, is one of the stumbling-blocks which we will have most difficulty in removing. I was speaking some time ago to an audience, every member of which had had what is thought to be the best possible education. They were all university graduates. The President and a few of the others told me that they would welcome some enlightenment on Art, but being all practical people, they were afraid they didn't understand much about the subject. Burns said about University students that "They gang in stirks, an' come oot asses." He is generally supposed to have said it in envious haste. I think he might have repeated it in considered leisure. It is bad enough in our public schools to meet with this kind of thin thinking, but that our highest halls of learning should launch their students on a cold world with such primitive thoughts on vital matters is sad indeed.

One of the members of the Board of Education was credited the other day with a statement (I do not remember the exact words), but they were to the effect that pupils should be encouraged to do things with their hands, and be taught through the doing instead of being bound down to seats that were screwed to the floor. Now, I consider that one of the most sane and hopeful remarks concerning education that has been made for many a long day. I noticed that one of our fair and honest "hand-on-my-heart" impartial newspapers called the speaker a crank. Well! A wise man has said that a "crank" is a thing that makes revolutions, and revolutions are sometimes bad for newspapers.

The first step toward better education is not to put more energy into our present way of doing things, but to realize that our whole

attitude towards education has been wrong. We have directed the education of our children with the mean aim of worldly success. The whole system gives evidence of an indifference to the making of character, but pointed directly to the making of money. We have passed it into the hands of officialism, who have petrified it into the lifeless thing it is, with no elasticity, no life..

In the training of all subjects I would even go further than our friend, Dr. Noble. I would do away with classrooms altogether, and turn them all into workshops. I would teach the arts and sciences when the necessity arose for them in workshop practice. I would teach Arithmetic by the slide rule, Geometry by the division of spaces for decoration, Hydraulics by the installation of a water-heating and drainage system, Mathematics in the measuring of surfaces for building or surveying, Architecture in the actual building of Municipal buildings, and all the arts in their decoration, and I would employ no teacher who could not succeed in earning his living at the craft he taught.

Surely the need, the immediate need, for some sane system such as this must be obvious to our statesmen. The need is indeed imperative, for before anything can be done *teachers* must be trained. I know two children who came home from school last summer and said that the teacher told them all that when school started in the fall they would all get "Art," as she was going to take a summer course. I hope the craft teachers will *not* be the "summer course" kind. 'Twere better to bear the ills we have, than fly to others *that we know of*.

When we have made craftsmen of our artists will there be no pictures any more? Oh, yes! There will be, but not so many. What we lack in quantity we will make up in quality. Our artisists will be earning their living by their craft, and when the spirit moves them to express themselves on canvas, they will do so in their leisure time, and do it for the love of doing it. But quite a number of them will be picture painters by profession still, but they will have made a thorough study of architecture, a far closer study than the architects make. They will be great designers of ornamental forms, and great colorists. They will understand the proper use of all materials, and they will make them all subservient to the fine, thoughtful records of all the great lives and works of really great men and women, which they will execute on the walls, not of Governor's

houses, nor of banks, nor of board rooms, nor of stock exchanges, but of all the rooms of all the public schools, thereby implanting in the plastic minds of the children a love of form, color, country, history and nature.

One of the most immediate results of giving an art training to all our workmen, and a work training to all our art men would be the disappearance of graft. If we had spent half as much to develop the crafts as we now spend in probing the grafts, the evil would have died years ago. The art worker has no illusions about what is euphemistically called "shrewd business." He knows that it is simply mean cheating. If he had the kind of mind that tolerated cheating merely because it succeeded in evading the law, he couldn't be an artist. He knows that any fool who cares to make the necessary sacrifice can make money, so that he does not *worship* the wealthy man; he watches him.

Above all, the better training of the artist would help to remove one of the meanest thoughts that a man can have—the thought that labor is degrading. Those who think that this thought is not prevalent had better ask a few of the parents of what are called the well-to-do classes to send their sons to learn the crafts of the bricklayer, the plasterer, or the carpenter. If they press the carpenter suggestion on the plea that Christ worked as one, they will get the cut direct, as it is "bad form" to introduce religious matters in week-day conversations.

In conclusion, will you allow me to quote the words of William Morris? "What I have tried to do is to put before you a cause for which to strive. That cause is the democracy of Art, the ennobling of daily and common work, which will one day put Hope and Pleasure in the place of Fear and Pain, as the forces which move men to labor, and keep the world going."

REFORMED SPELLING SECTION.

THE PROGRESS OF SPELLING REFORM DURING THE YEAR.

JOHN DEARNESS. M.A., VICE-PRINCIPAL, NORMAL SCHOOL, LONDON.

A writer in the *Kolnische Zeitung* attempted to prove to his fellow-countrymen that the German Empire would yet establish its superiority over the British in a future contest, if not in the present one. One of the grounds upon which he based this conviction is that, compared with the German youth, the British youth are handicapt by the waste of two years of school life on antiquated spelling and tables of weights and measures—two years which the Germans can devote to intrinsically valuable instruction. The British people were already awakening to the slackness of their schools in the matter of scientific education, and it was the force of this discovery that led the Government to appoint the Educational Reconstruction Committee.

The translation and publication of the *Zeitung's* article in the London *Daily Mail*, coming at a time when the British educational traditions and systems were under critical observation, turned attention to the spelling fetish of the schoolmaster. The Spelling Society lost no time in laying before the Reconstruction Committee a strong case for the improvement of English spelling. Under the active direction of such scholars as Viscount Bryce, Sir Frederick Pollock, Bishop Welldon, H. G. Wells, Prof. Gilbert Murray and others, a petition praying for the appointment of a Royal Commission to consider and report upon the subject had been signed by influential leaders of opinion in all parts of the Empire. It bore the names of one or more professors in all the universities of the British Islands; there were, for example, over twenty well-known names from Cambridge University. The overseas dominions were well represented. A list of more than a hundred influential names from Canada included the signatures of Chancellors Sir William Meredith and the late Sir Sandford Fleming, university

Presidents Murray and Braithwaite, Vice-Principals Watson of Queen's and Moyse of McGill, Supt. MacKay of Nova Scotia and ex-Premier Scott of Saskatchewan, Judge Chauveau and Dean Mathieu of Laval Law School, and many other professors, principals and teachers of Normal schools, colleges and high schools.

The weight of this petition was supported by a plea quoting the unanimous resolution of the Imperial Education Conference, that "the simplification of English spelling is a matter of urgent importance in all parts of the Empire," and Lord Bryce's declaration that such simplification would in a generation make English "the language of commerce all over the East, with enormous benefit to trade." It was also urged that a consistent, rational spelling would save at least a year in the education time of our children; that it would promote purer and more uniform pronunciation; and that it would greatly lessen the difficulty of teaching reading to defective English-speaking children as well as to our fellow-subjects of alien races.

There is also evidence of increasing desire to study the English language in nearly all foreign countries. Its commercial value, rich literature, and grammatical simplicity explain its popularity with language-teachers. This popularity would be greatly increased if the spelling were reformed to make it a help instead of the most serious hindrance to the acquisition of the language by foreigners.

The presentation of the Society's plea has, directly or indirectly, resulted in the action of the National Board of Education in sanctioning experiments with simplified spelling in various elementary schools.

The absorbing interest in the war naturally led most of the spelling-reformers to expect but little progress until its close; but contrary to expectations, and largely for the reasons already stated, there is greater readiness shown than formerly to consider proposals for reform. In 1916, the British Society enrolled more than twice as many new members as it did in 1915, and the secretary's books show a volume of fifty per cent. more inquiries. The British National Union of Teachers of the Deaf adopted a resolution strongly supporting simplification of spelling, and several of the branches of the National Union of Teachers have adopted similar resolutions. It

may be said then that the year 1916, insted of being a year of waiting, has been one of unusual progress in the matter of spelling reform.

The work in the United States has been carried on mostly in the colleges and press. In the U. S. Educational Directory there are 826 universities, colleges and normal scools listed. Of these, 57 per cent. permit their students—a total number of over 327,000—to use simplified spellings. The increase during the year was from 265 to 453 institutions. In 1913, there wer only 22.

In the United States three years ago only 38 newspapers and periodicals wer recorded as using simplified spellings. At the annual meeting of the Board, on the 3rd inst., the secretary showed a list of 486 daily newspapers and periodicals, with a total circulation of 17,000,000, using simplified spellings. Numerous teachers' associations hav adopted resolutions in favor of simplified spelling, and two State Boards of Education favor its use in the scools of their respectiv States.

All things considered, the past year has shown more progress in the improvement of English spelling than any preceding year.

*THE LOST VALUES OF THE ALFABET, AND HOW TO
RECOVER THEM.*

MRS. DORA C. FORSTER KERR.

The Alfabet is the greatest factor in progressiv civilization. To show truly what the alfabet has done for humankind in its progress towards civilization is beyond the power of a few simple words. To find a comparison for the boon that the alfabet has been to men, we must follow flights of Oriental imagination. It is the magic horse that could transport a man thousands of miles in a moment; it is the invisible cap by which we can be there without being seen; it is the power to see and hear at a distance. But it is more than the gift of some mighty magician or fabulously wealthy king to another. It is the gift of a people to all peoples. It is for all, not for a few, nor for a privileged caste to use and to conceal from the multitude. It is the symbol of the liberty, equality and fraternity of the early Christians' dreams, and the means whereby we shall attain these.

We received the alfabet from Greek hands, whence has come so very much of European culture. But it originated with an Asian people. We may well pause to ask what we hav ever done for Asia in return for this transcendent gift of a fonetic alfabet.

How hav we guarded this priceless treasure? We hav allowed it to fall half into ruins; and for centuries no voice of warning was lifted to preserv it.

We hav been far more careless with our alfabet than other European peoples. Our standards as to accurate sound notation hav always been lower. Where we have more variations of sound than other peoples, we have no letter variations to denote them. Like the Dutch, we hav resorted to a makeshift of 2-letter notation for vowels, but we hav neglected to form intelligent uniform habits of using even this digraf makeshift.

For the 12 recognized vowel sounds in English we hav only 5 vowel letters.

For the ah-long sound, "the leader in all alfabets," heard in the word "father," we have no letter-mark to distinguish it from ah-short, unless the letter "u" set beside it, in some words having

the consonant "n," may be so considered, retained in the words *aunt* and *launch*. The association of ah-long letter with the "r" trill consonant, following it, usually implies this sound, as in the word *hard*, but it also shares this denotation with o-broad, as in the word *ward*. We have an unfortunate English eccentricity in naming the first letter of the alfabet "eh" and in using it for that sound.

Eh-long is denoted in six different ways, all commonly used. 1st, as in *eight, veil, neighbour*; 2nd, as in *late, wake, cave*; 3rd, as in *paid, laid*; 4th, as in the adjective *great*, and the noun *steak*; 5th, as in *they*; 6th, as in *day, stray*, and in the word *fête*, we borrow the usual representation of it in the Latin languages.

The one-stroke letter is the representativ of "ee"-long in the languages of our neighbours. We use this notation in a good many words, *machine, police, caprice, mosquito, unique*, and others; but in our commonest words we hav very conflicting representations of it,—by one monotype, and by five different diagrafs, or seven, if the words "key" and "people" are reckoned. The monotype for "ee"-long is seen in the words *he, we, cede*, and in several common prefixes, *pre-, de-, and* others; and the various diagrafs for "ee" are found in the words *feast, leap*, and about 40 of similar spelling; in the words *see, feel*, and some 40 others of common use; in the words *yield, priest*, and several others; and in *deceive* and a few others.

O-long is denoted by "o" in the words *no, post*, but takes a silent letter after it in the words *note, pose*; and the diagrafs used for o-long ar, as in *coat, boast*, and a few similar uses; as in *own* and *crow*; and (very unreasonably) as in *foe* and a few other cases.

O-broad is variously denoted in a few score of common Anglo-Saxon words, its worst representatives being in *water* and *walk*, and in *caught* and *fought*.

The short vowels ar the most numerously used, and the present usual forms of our five vowel letters should be retained for them, as all students agree. Our trouble with these is to get rid of the foolish diagraf makeshift which has been carelessly used to denote both long and short vowels in such words as *mead* and *meadow*; and in one very important word, the verb to *read*, it is impossible in script and print to indicate, by the orthodox spelling, the difference between "I read" (present tense) and "I red" (past tense).

The only short vowel which needs special attention is u-slurred, as in the words "but," crust" and many others, and in the very frequent prefix "un-". This sound, according to Dr. A. J. Ellis, was not used before the middle of the 17th century, and we may wish, but probably wish in vain, that English North-countrymen could restore to us the old full pronunciation of the fine vowel "u," insted of which our Lancashire men are copying Southern English now, and naturally sometimes go a little further, and pronounce "bull" like "bulge" and "cull." Before long, more of our u-sounds will be degraded into u-slurd, inevitably, unless our present infinitely muddled notation is reformed.

It is necessary to look at, and also to "read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest" a synopsis of our vowel notation, so that we may feel the full shame of it as we ought to feel it.

OUR VOWEL NOTATION.

Ah-long.

ant, ark, launch, half, mast, staff, laugh, last, aunt.

Ah-short.

an, amity, stand, pat, lattice, alkali.

Eh-long.

age, hate, eight, they, take, great, care, yea, hey-dey, exclaim, hair.

Eh-short.

edge, yes, learn, friend, leopard, bread, read, heard, any, men.

"ee"-long.

ease, be, he, priest, seek, seize, cede, proceed, read, hear.

"ee"-short.

it, bit, build, Briton, forfeit, kin.

O-long.

oak, lo, soul, don't, obey, note, post, coal, foe.

O-broad.

awkward, for, all, broad, water, walk, nought, naughty, plausible.

O-short.

on, not, doll, was, wan, alter, often, quantity, troth.

U-long.

ooze, true, prove, lose, rule, moot, shoe, do, two, fool.

U-short.

put, wood, could, look, wool, sugar, full.

U-slurd (17th century "U"),
under, cub, dove, done, sprung.

Difthong Sounds.

au.....owl, out, loud.
ai.....aye, ride, kind.
iu.....you, use, unity, few.
oi, oy...oil, joy, alloy, foil.

Our children get no benefit of a fonetic alfabet, as regards vowel sounds. Every word must be lernd separately as tho it were a Chinese ideograph. There is not a word in the English language that anyone, from hearing it pronounced, can spell, nor from seeing it printed can, with certainty, pronounce.

Vowels may be considered the most elementary and essential sounds of spoken languages, and language might perhaps, with careless peoples, slip back wholly into vowels, wer it not for the check of the visual language of print. The Londoner is apt to degrade the word "hill" into "yeo." And a conversation in Scotch vowels has been reported, which concerned the purchase of some woolen goods. "Oo?" queried the customer. "Aye, oo," was the reply. "A' oo?" prest the customer, who was then assured, "Aye, a' oo!"

Yet in visual language the consonant letters are the letters which give words their distinctive forms, their usually ascending and descending character providing a good outline, while the vowel shapes ar squat and rounded.

In changing and modifying the vowel letters, we do not disturb the familiar word-shapes in the same degree as in altering consonant letters. In fact, reform of vowel notation, while most needed, can also be accomlisht with least annoyance to the present generation or those of them who shrink from seeing changes. Tampering with consonants in print is irritating to many. True vowel notation will do away with the necessity of doubling consonant letters as we now do, in the attemt to indicate shortness of the preceding vowel, which is one of the difficulties of English spelling.

Moreover, the most antiquarian of language scolars can scarcely suppose that with our confused uses of vowel letters much "history" in the language would be wiped out," as the late Professor E. A.

Freeman feared. Professor Freeman's influence probably counted for something in keeping us self-satisfied and lazy, and ignorant of what a true fonetic alfabet means. He was in the line of Dr. Johnston, who so unfortunately stereotypd our muddled spelling. As the guest of a lively hostess he was aptly described as "a nice old bear." He was a great Old-English scolar, no doubt, but incapable of grasping a big, practical problem of reform.

With our vowel notation once rationalized, we shall be able to ask of our historical frends some gentle little questions about consonants. Whether, for instance, they might not be satisfied with reading about the gutturals which our ancestors sounded in the words "fought" and "thought," instead of recalling these gutturals every time they read or write these words; or whether they would prefer restoring the sound of them, as in the true Scotch pronounciation.

English spelling is a barrier placed at the gate of knowledge which prevents many from ever becoming truly literature. The precious school-time of all is wasted in memorizing this arbitrary and illogical spelling, and this memory work is actually made the test of education! A complete alfabet and the intelligent use of it, can be lernd in a few days, as was proved by the missionary, James Evans, who gave the Cree Indians an alfabet for their language which they wer able to use in a week, and some of them mastered in one day. A German has truly said of English scools: "The standard to be attaind is set very low and the achievements ar tragic, thanks largely to the incredibly antiquated spelling and the complicated money-weights-and-measures tables." (1915: *Klonische Zeitung*.)

Why ar our university magnates content to see our alfabet half in ruins? I do not fully know; but I do confidently assert that their contentment could be shattered once for all if every trairnd and conscientious teacher would clamor for alfabet restoration. We must have a true alfabet to teach. Where there is a will there is a way—with professors. I do not commend the way of the great revolutionists who spoke the saddest word ever heard in a revolution: "We do not need learned men."

Our best hope lies in the teaching profession. A teachers' charter would insist upon true and progressiv reform of language

notation. Such a charter would demand the due recognition of the noblest of all professions by the granting of professional degrees. The M.A. degree is never equivalent to a teacher's training, and should never be so regarded. University powers should never pass into the hands of those who are ignorant of the psychology of teaching. To university ignorance of teaching is due the neglect of the foundations of learning.

But not teachers alone are responsible; all should love and cherish our language. We cannot safely leave the restoration of alfabet values to anyone who may come forward to do the work, whether professionally or as a hobby. We should watch and test such work as carefully as that of building a house in which we are to live. Millions of our children and of their children in every generation are to live and move and have their mental being in the English language. Every letter and every turn of every letter should be scanned. The attempt recently made (no doubt with good intentions) to thrust the diagraph method of vowel notation upon the English language in perpetuity should be a warning to us. This 2-letter notation, so wasteful of time and space, is most faulty of all from the point of view of teachers' psychology. It would appear in many common Latin-derived words, at present free from it. The proposal of this makeshift cannot arouse the enthusiasm and spirit of self-sacrifice necessary in a great reform. Fortunately, this method is not at all favored west of the Atlantic.

The importance of recognizing continental values in letters is a weighty consideration, for we have suffered too much from Anglo-Saxon singularities. But the valuable work of the French foneticians must not blind us to the interests of English notation. We were warned in the Sweet article on Phonetics in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*: "It is well suited for French" . . . but it is "an attempt to make a special adaptation of the Romic basis to the needs of the French language into a general notation for all languages."

"The "Phonotype" alphabet of Sir Isaac Pitman is, I believe, the best basis we have to work from, giving slight, but distinct, modifications of our present letters to denote the sound modifications. Some changes of the Pitman letters may be needed, and some slight strokes may have to be thickened as more suitable for the typewriter. The letter for eh-long is excellent; it is a rounded form

of the capital E. Ah-long should have a rounded form of capital A, instead of Pitman's reversed "a," which is psychologically faulty. This will readily form into the two diphthongal characters needed. For "ee"-long, a frank compromise between our *i* and *e* letters has been suggested, having most of the one-stroke letter of continental usage; it has a rounded hook top and a dot. There is a very good letter for o-broad, an "O" having a kind of kidney shape, shortened. The Pitman u-long is distinguished by a slight descending elongation of the second limb. A narrow form of the capital-U shape, as in several other proposed vowel lists, has been recommended for U-slurd.

Every exponent of a reform has some cherisht detail to dwell upon. I wish to be champion of the letter "Y," on which some spelling reformers seem inclined to lay violent hands and to divert from its present usual functions. This "consonantal-vowel" letter, as it has been called, begins or ends many familiar, and, I may say, beloved, English words: yes, yesterday, youth, you, they, lovely, funny, joy; and many other pleasant or characteristic English words. "Y" is harmless retained for optional use in beginning and ending words, as equivalent to "ee"-short, (i), for the present at least. Thus the continuity loved by scholars would be less broken, and our alphabetical books of reference less disturbd.

The necessary vowel changes, modifying letters, will not be painful, and we shall see little of them for several years, outside of the scools in which they are adopted for our children. This reform is advocated not as a pleasant pastime but as an imperative duty. The study of it is, however, most interesting.

A most important avenue of hope lies in the great need of India for Romanic letters.

The duty of providing a fonetic alfabet for optional use in the 147 languages of India cannot long be deferd; and what we can give away we can surely provide for ourselves. If we push this reform, the great duty of our Empire, we ar helping ourselves also. At the present time we are allowing one man, the Rev. J. Knowles, to work at this reform in loneliness and difficulties, without even funds necessary for printing, tho his experience and linguistic knowledge are most valuable to us for the work.

I believe the educationists of Canada are more alive to the great issues of education than others, and that they have a great deal in their power.



LEAGUE OF EMPIRE SECTION

GREECE AND ROUMANIA AND THE WAR.

MAURICE HUTTON, PRINCIPAL UNIVERSITY COLLEGE.

I left the diplomacy of Greece this time last year still wobbling and wavering between the Allies and the Germans, between Venizelos and the king. Much has happened since, but nothing that is very clear or decisive. For a long time the king had the upper hand. He has established a reputation among his countrymen as a heaven-sent general: as the best soldier of the royal houses of Europe. Venizelos himself is in part responsible for this, unwittingly; for he had found it convenient, in 1912 and 1913, to magnify the king's successful conduct of the two Balkan wars of 1912 and 1913, and now he cannot well eat his own words and depreciate the ability of the king he so exalted. It is the nemesis of diplomacy, that, for diplomatic reasons, the diplomatist often takes a line which, afterwards, he has every reason to regret. Southern Greece evidently takes the king very seriously and honestly believes that it is only safe under his guidance. The split between the king and his former premier has grown deeper and wider. All through 1916 the king's party was not only in control of all Greece up to Thessaly, but even threatened the Allies' hold on Saloniki: the French at Saloniki could not move north for fear of a Greek attack on Saloniki and their flank. The Allies then exerted pressure by their fleets on Athens and compelled the expulsion of the German and Austrian ambassadors: but the pressure was not entirely successful. On the 1st of December last, fighting occurred in the streets of Peiræus and Athens between French and British detachments on one side and Greek reservists on the other. The French and British lost several men and withdrew to their ships. Their allies, the Venizelists, in Athens, were very roughly handled and thrown into prison. The Greek Church—like other branches of the Church at various times in other countries, as in England of the Stuarts and as in France at all times—took the Royalist side almost unanimously. The Archbishop in Athens solemnly cursed Venizelos as an enemy

not only of monarchy but of the Church, and excommunicated the few Bishops who were on the liberal side. The allied fleet redoubled its pressure, extorted apologies and subjected Greece to a blockade. The blockade has caused great hardships and some change of heart. The reservists have been more or less disbanded, and, better than that, the Royalist army in Thessaly has been removed to the Morea, or Southern Greece; but the impression remains that the king is no more friendly, or even neutral, than he has been from the first: that he is only waiting for a chance to help his brother-in-law. The chance has not come, does not seem just now likely to come, and the king is once again more passive and the blockade, in consequence, has been removed or lightened. But there is no assurance against fresh Royalist movements except the power of the French fleet at Athens. Greece is engaged practically in a civil war. A small Venizelist army at Saloniki is co-operating with the Allies, but it represents only Venizelos and the Cretans and the Greek islanders—not the mainland Greeks. Meanwhile, Greece has lost her claims on the Allies and the sympathy of the Allies, and lost a good deal more. The city of Kavalla, with its rich hinterlands, which was seized by Greece in 1913, and which Venizelos was willing to cede, in 1915, to Bulgaria for a price, the price of a Bulgarian alliance with Greece and the Allies, but which the king refused to cede, has been captured by the Bulgarians, without any price—without any price, at any rate, which can be avowed and published by the king; and the Greek army corps which held it for Greece surrendered for the most part to Bulgaria, and was carried prisoners into Germany. Those who refused surrender escaped to the Venizelist army at Saloniki. Guns and munitions were captured with them: as an offset to which the Allies have secured the surrender to them of a certain number of Greek batteries or artillery from Corfu. The Italians also have encroached on the Greek districts of Epirus; and Greece has lost to Italy, on the north-west, no less than to Bulgaria on the north-east, and all on account of the fatal divisions in Greek policy and the civil war which distracts and divides her, and has reduced her to the lowest depths of humiliation and ignominy, and left her a Niobe among nations, “a holy show,” hopelessly divided against herself, as incapable of common effort in a common cause as she was in the worst days of her classical history: in the days of the Peloponnesian War, and throughout the fourth

century B.C., and without any of the compensations which those classical days of decadence witnessed; the flowering, I mean, of a literary genius, which seemed—as often it seems in the history of nations—to burn all the brighter for the political and practical decadence, amidst which it flourishes, and from which even—in the strange compensations of Nature—it seems to draw some of its force and heat. Civil war and political controversy have sometimes lighted fires of intellect such as are sufficient almost to outshine the material desolation, the fires of burning cities and ruined homes, which accompany civil war and political turmoil; but it has not been so with Greece since 1914. The picture is black, unrelieved.

I had occasion last year to speak of the indecisions and the waverings of Greek policy. Here is another State—Roumania—which will have seemed perhaps to you—up to August last—capable of giving Greeks many points and pointers at that game.

In August last the war had lasted twenty-four months, and during most of that time we had heard, at intervals of a few days or a few weeks, that Roumania was coming in: she was like the Colorado mines, which are always going to pay a dividend next month.

But possibly Roumania had more excuses for her indecision than has Greece. Why should she come in? Because this war, answers someone, is for the liberation of the world: is for general liberty: is for the liberty in particular of the smaller nationalities: is even for common humanity and respect for treaties and common decency and Christianity in the conduct of peace and war, in diplomacy, and on the field of battle, by land and sea. And these things especially concern small countries; the virtue of others is a luxury to the great nation: it is a necessity to the small.

The answer seems a good one to us: perhaps not quite so good to a Roumanian.

What is a Roumanian? Who is he?

The Roumans or Romans are the descendants of Roman soldiers quartered by the Emperor Trajan on the banks of the Danube in the beginning of the second century A.D., to guard the frontiers of the Roman Empire. Their province was called Dacia. It was surrendered after nearly 200 years, in 270 A.D., to the Barbarians;

and nothing is known of the history of the inhabitants of Dacia for 1,000 years; and not much of importance for us even after that time until the 19th century.

But the language and the national spirit survived for these 1,600 years (270—1850), if we jump now into the middle of the nineteenth century, and they still occupied the lands north of the Lower Danube for the greater part of its lower course and south and east and west of the last stretches of that river, where it suddenly turns north and then east again into the Black Sea.

The population is nearly double that of Canada—13,000,000. But it is not all in Roumania; only about our numbers are in Roumania proper—7,000,000. Three and one-half millions are under the Hungarian flag—very much under it—in Transylvania; 230,000 are under the milder rule of Austria in Bukovina; 200,000 are in Serbia, and 350,000 scattered through the Balkans. And further (and this is important), 1,350,000 are under the Russian flag in Bessarabia, north of the mouth of the Danube. It is this Roumania irredenta in Bessarabia and under Russian rule which goes some way to cancel the appeal made by the three and one-half millions of Roumanians in Transylvania, which are to be rescued first and foremost, the victims of Russian or of Austro-Hungarian rule.

Until 1878 the Roumans recognized the suzerainty of the Turks; but only his suzerainty. During the Crimean War, in the fifties, the land was occupied by an Austrian army after its evacuation by the Russians in 1854. The Congress of Paris, in 1856, re-established the land as two principalities—Moldavia and Wallachia—and gave Bessarabia back to Roumania. But early in 1858, through French influence and sympathy, the two were united under one Prince, Alexander Cuza, and in 1861 Turkey acknowledged the Roumanian nation.

In 1866 Cuza was banished by a rising of his nobles. He was a well-meaning but rather high-handed and autocratic reformer; and Carlos—a Catholic Hohenzollern—was elected in his place, with the approval of Napoleon III., but not—curiously—through any support from Prussia or Austria. (Napoleon afterwards lost his crown when resisting the candidature of Carlos' brother Leo-

pold for the throne of Spain; *his* candidature was supported originally and even prompted by Prussian influence through the scheming of Bismarck.)

With Carlos began the real history of Roumania. He showed great ability, and in particular he managed her foreign politics single-handed. In 1878 he joined Russia against his suzerain, Turkey. The help of his army was not asked at first; the Russians loftily told him they needed a right of way, but not an army from him, but when Russia had to ask for his army it proved invaluable and helped greatly in the defeat of Turkey. Prince Carlos (or Charles) became King Charles in 1881, with the consent of Europe, and the suzerainty of Turkey disappeared.

But with 1878 also began another force in Roumanian politics besides the growth of her national spirit and the repudiation of Turkey. Between the Crimean War and 1878 Roumania had included Bessarabia. After the war against Turkey of 1878, victorious Russia had the egregious folly to help herself, at Roumania's expense, to Bessarabia, giving Roumania in exchange a strip of land to the south of her previous borders, and forming part of Bulgaria—a piece of the Dobrudscha. Roumania protested, and Russia said she might have to disarm the Roumanian army. Carlos answered that the victors of Plevna might be conquered, but could not be disarmed by Russia.

No piece of folly and greed on Russia's part was ever more signally punished. Can you wonder if Roumania hung back and was not enthusiastic for the Allies, when she remembered 1878, her exertions for Russia and against Turkey, and the sort of gratitude Russia showed her? Lord Beaconsfield, at the Berlin Conference, said privately to the Roumanian representative that in politics the best services are often rewarded with ingratitude. As a matter of fact, what he did—or rather, what his second, Lord Salisbury, did—was to secure Roumania a hearing; but the hearing did not avail her. Lord Salisbury remarked dryly at the Conference or Congress of Berlin, that “the Congress having heard the representatives of Greece, which was claiming foreign provinces, it would be but fair to listen to the representatives of a country which claimed only what was its own.” This palpable hit, compelled the plenipotentiaries in spite of the opposition of Russia, to give Roumania her hearing, but nothing but a hearing; she did not recover Bessarabia.

The hearing, as I have said, did not avail her. Lord Salisbury, shortly before this, had taken the same line as Lord Beaconsfield, when speaking to the Roumanian special envoy in London. He had assured him of England's sympathy and assistance, but had added the significant corollary, "but, to be quite candid, there are questions of more concern in England, and should she be able to come to an understanding with Russia with regard to them, she would not wage war for the sake of Roumania." This very candid friendship for Roumania was exemplified in the actual arrangement made between Russia and Great Britain at the Congress. It was published, by an indiscretion, in the *London Globe* of June, 1878. "The Government of her Britannic Majesty considers that it will feel itself bound to express its deep regret should Russia persist in demanding the retrocession of Bessarabia. England's interest in this question is not, however, such as to justify her in taking upon herself alone the responsibility of opposing the intended exchange."

And now, gentlemen, you understand what is meant when it is said that Great Britain used to refuse to take Roumania seriously; and also you understand why Roumania, up to August, 1916, was not too eager to join Great Britain or Great Britain's ally, Russia.

The offenders heretofore have been Russia and Great Britain in this matter of Roumania and the Balkans.

But in 1912 and 1913, during the two Balkan wars, Roumania became herself the offender. She took no part in the war of 1912 against Turkey, but she availed herself of the victory of Bulgaria, Greece and Serbia to demand compensation. For what? For the disturbance of the balance of power in the Balkans. There is just the same excitement in the Balkans about the balance of power locally, as in Europe as a whole over the European balance; and it has been an infinitely more mischievous principle in the Balkans than in Europe; it has prevented the natural and even the necessary principle there—the alliance of the Balkan States with one another against Russia, on the one hand, and Austria on the other. Had Roumania—Greece—Bulgaria and Serbia been allied together, and perhaps even persuaded Turkey ultimately to join them, there would have been no Russian or Austro-German aggression against them, no Russian or Austro-German scheming for Constantinople or Saloniki, and an open door towards Asia Minor and Bagdad. But Roumania did *not* join the Balkan league of Bulgaria, Greece

and Serbia against Turkey; and she did more than not join it; she demanded compensation for their victories. Russia was appointed arbitrator in the winter of 1912, and gave her an extension of territory in the Dobrudscha at the expense of Bulgaria (it was Bulgaria's extension which Roumania specially feared). Hardly had Roumania made this gain of territory to the south (where her frontier had been especially weak and unscientific) when the second Balkan war broke out, in June, 1913. Roumania at once took the chance opened to her. With the connivance or consent of Russia, she invaded Bulgaria—already at war with Greece and Serbia, and threatened with war also by Turkey—poured her troops into Bulgaria, and marched on Sofia. Bulgaria could not resist four armies at once, and in the conference at Bucharest in September, 1913, Roumania received a further extension of territory in the Dobrudscha, and came out of an almost bloodless war—so far as she was concerned—victoriously and with more Bulgarian territory for her share of the victory.

When the Great War broke out, in 1914, it is understood that the king, who managed Roumania's foreign politics, desired to join his kinsman, Emperor William. His ministry objected that Roumania knew nothing officially of any tie between her and the Hohenzollerns. The king, it is understood, then turned to the commander-in-chief and suggested a *coup d'état* on behalf of Germany and Austria. The commander objected that a *coup d'état* would destroy the king and not the ministry. The king is reported to have remarked bitterly, "You don't know what it feels like, gentlemen, to be a stranger single-handed in a foreign land." He was still a Hohenzollern, you perceive, and not a Roumanian. There the struggle rested for a few weeks, and the king died in the autumn, lucky, perhaps, in having built up a strong nation, having guided its foreign politics successfully for nearly fifty years, and then in dying before the worst difficulties of directing its foreign politics had fully revealed themselves. There can be no doubt that his death was—like the first Balkan War—a heavy blow to Austro-Germany.

His nephew, Ferdinand, the present king, succeeded. It is assumed that he, also, as a Hohenzollern, would have liked to join Austro-Germany; but he had not the prestige and influence of his great predecessor and uncle. And his wife is an English woman,

the daughter of the Duke of Edinburgh. Probably he is not so wholly Teutonic therefore in his sympathies as his uncle was.

But you see the divisions and the difficulties in the way of Roumanian action. The Allies are Russia, Great Britain, France, Italy. I mention them in the order of their power, so far as Roumania is concerned. Russia they obviously had no occasion to love much; and if she held Constantinople, their only access to the sea, their position would be far worse than when it is held by a weak power like Turkey. Russia holds their Bessarabian brethren still under her government. Great Britain has been only a candid friend—the friend we don't love much, though we may feel a sort of respect for his candor.

France is much more loved. Roumania is the creation of France of the Emperor Napoleon III., but the third Republic has been too busy with other things to maintain the Emperor's interest in Roumania. And though everyone in Roumania can speak French, and though Bucharest is called "little Paris" and is a little Paris both for good and evil, and young Roumanians go to Paris to study, and besides studying, waste their substance in Parisian living, and acquire more manners than morals, still the tie with France was not of itself sufficient to plunge the country into a desperate war for France's sake.

The tie, fortunately for us, did not stand quite by itself. There is Italy. Roumania, as a Roman colony—speaking a language even nearer Latin than modern Italian is—naturally gravitates towards Italy rather than towards the other Balkan States, which speak Greek or Slave tongues, and we used to assume that Italy's entrance into the war would at once draw Roumania with it.

Perhaps it would have done so had the season been auspicious; but the auspicious moment for intervention—up to last August, that is—was April, 1915, when the Carpathians were full of Russian troops, when Premyzsl had fallen to the Russian arms, when Austria-Hungary seemed at her last gasp, and when Transylvania seemed an easy conquest, with her Roumanian population of three and one-half millions, to a Roumanian army of 600,000 good soldiers.

But these soldiers—like all the allied armies—were short of munitions, and they had been accustomed to buy from Germany, ever since 1878, and the ingratitude of Russia. They had orders out with Krupp. Krupp naturally was in no hurry to fill the orders:

they were not filled, and, most of all, Italy was not yet committed to war. She only came in in May, after the great German drive through Galicia and the collapse of the ill-armed Russian armies before Von Mackenson's artillery had already begun. Roumania hung back, therefore, in April, and within a month no doubt was mortally glad that she had hung back. Galicia was reconquered for the Teutonic alliance, and no second opportunity came in 1915 tempting enough to draw Roumania down from her fence. Her so-called Conservative party was vigorously pro-ally, under Mr. Take Jonescu; but her Liberal Premier, Bratiano, was an able understudy or counterpart of Mr. Asquith: "Wait and see" was his last word. Party politics in Roumania are not very different from party politics in Italy and France before the war; they are rather personal than constitutional; and there is more personal interest than principle in them. Moreover, the land—unlike Serbia and Greece and Bulgaria—has the remnants of a landed aristocracy and an acute land question. There is perennial friction between land owners and peasants, perennial fears of a jacquerie or peasant rising. It is not unlikely that the landed proprietors, like the king, leaned to the aristocrats of Hungary and Austria and Prussia, who are fighting this war as a last struggle against democracy, and were not keen supporters of Mr. Take Jonescu, though he is called the Conservative leader. The title probably means little more, if as much, than it means in Canada or in Ontario. Roumania has—as has been said already—many affinities with Italy. Some of them quite apart from blood and language. I mean that just as Italy went into the German-Austrian alliance as a *pis aller* because she was terribly afraid of Austria, and could only be her little foe or her ally, and not being able to be her foe—when she had a quarrel with France over Tunis—had perforce to become Austria's ally; so Roumania, having a quarrel with Russia over Bessarabia, could not afford to be neutral towards her other neighbor, Austria. She had either to court Austria or make up her quarrel with Russia. She preferred the former course before the Great War. The Great War gave her a breathing space and the opportunity, for a time at least, of a real neutrality. But it could not last forever. And unless Roumania could remake a Balkan alliance with Greece, Bulgaria and Serbia, if not Turkey also, as its members, an alliance which bristled then with difficulties, though it was possible in 1912, she was

bound ultimately to choose between Russia and Austro-Hungary. And if she chose our side we have to thank France and Italy more for her choice than ourselves. We began too late to take Roumania seriously.

I have omitted, I notice, any references to religions. A man's religion is the most interesting thing about him, said Carlyle, and it ought to be true also of a State's religion. It is not so, however, in Roumania. Roumania has not taken religion very seriously. The national Church is orthodox, the Greek Church, with its own local Bishops, however, and not controlled from Constantinople by the Greek Patriarch. It is the church of her peasants, but it does not seriously influence her Gallicized upper classes. There is also the Uniate Church, which is a curious mixture of the Greek and Roman churches. The Uniate clergy, like the Greek clergy, or the Protestant clergy, have the right to marry, and in their private lives, therefore, are nearer Eastern or North-western Europe than they are to Rome; but, technically, in its creed, the Uniate Church is Roman Catholic and acknowledges the rule of Rome. As technical theology is out of date and fashion at the present time, I must assume that the Uniate Church, as well as the National Church proper of Roumania is more likely to draw the country to the Allies than towards Austria, the only really Roman Catholic power engaged in the Great War.

And now we come to August of last year (1916) and Roumania's plunge into the war. It is generally supposed that her entrance then was neither exactly voluntary on her part or on the part of the Allies. It is supposed that Germany compelled her to choose without further parleying, and that, under these circumstances, she chose our side, though neither Russia nor France nor Great Britain were ready just then to offer her much aid. However, she chose the Allies. Having chosen, she took a second step, which has been much criticized, and which perhaps was taken on her own account and not in accordance with the wishes or advice of her Allies. Instead of invading Bulgaria from the north, and thus relieving the pressure of Germany on Saloniki, she invaded Hungary (Transylvania, that is) from the south in order to win back her three and one-half millions of Transylvanian brethren. The invasion, as you all remember, went well for a few weeks, and then collapsed. Von Mackenson and Von Falkenhayn overran Transyl-

vania, invaded Roumania itself and captured the whole of Wallachia, i.e., Western and Southern Roumania. The Roumanians lost Bucharest, their capital, and the northern bank of the Danube. They lost also the eastern and southern banks of the river, where it separates Roumania from the Dobrudsha. And they now hold only a small part of the river near Galatz, and the old Province of Moldavia, i.e., North-eastern Roumania. They still hold out there, supported by Russian armies, and their capital and court have been removed to Jassy, the city in the extreme north of their territory, adjoining the Bukovina, which is held by their Russian allies, and saves them from being attacked in the rear, as the Carpathians save them on the west, and there for the moment the war rests, and this paper closes.

COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL DEPARTMENT

SHOULD LATIN BE REQUIRED AT MATRICULATION?

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The subject on which I am about to hazard an opinion this afternoon is one that had not reached even the position of an academic question before the latter half of the 19th century. "Should Latin be required for entrance to a University?" was a problem that would hardly arise in the early history of European universities. Throughout the Middle Ages, Latin was the usual language in which scholars and statesmen of different countries communicated with each other, and in which theology, history, philosophy, and science were written. A knowledge of Latin was necessary to get any formal education.

Moreover, hardly any literature was to be found in the vernacular tongues, except romances and folk poetry. Indeed Dante's famous treatise, "*De vulgari eloquentia*," at the beginning of the 14th century, is the first serious effort in any European country to justify the use of the vernacular as a literary language. Three centuries later, Francis Bacon felt it necessary to write his great "*Instauratio*" in Latin that it might be more readily understood by scholars of his own day and more sure of readers in the future. We must remember, too, that Milton debated long whether Latin or English should be the language of his great epic, as it was the language of his controversy with Salmasius and of some of his most intimate personal poems.

In English literature the 18th century was dominated by men who consciously imitated classic models. Pope, Gibbon, Johnson, Burke—what a difference there would be in their works if they had not been students of Horace and Cicero. And further, the very language we read became so Latinized at the close of the 17th century that its vocabulary for a time was more Latin than Teutonic.

One almost needs to be a Latin scholar to read with understanding some of the prose of Milton and Taylor and Browne.

I suppose the great movement we call Renaissance was what really undermined the stronghold of Latin. Men found, as the new learning spread, that if they wished to get the best thought of the ancient world they must turn from the second-hand literature of Rome and go to the original Greek. They did turn to Greek and found there an unhesitating acceptance of reason as the sole guide to truth. Now this open-mindedness of the Greeks was the real basis of modern science. Yet it is modern science and its marvellous development that to-day threatens to crowd Latin out of the list of subjects for Matriculation. That Renaissance movement which we call the Reformation has had perhaps even more influence in ousting Latin from its hold on popular education. The Reformation spread broadcast in Germany and the Low Countries and in England translations of the Bible in the vernacular of these lands. Further, the worship in the reformed churches was no longer in Latin. Indeed the language of Rome and the religion of Rome came to be associated in popular prejudice. The old dominance of the imperial tongue was gone forever.

The shifting of emphasis on the different subjects commonly taught in secondary schools has been most pronounced in France, where Latin is no longer necessary either for entrance to or graduation from a University. In Germany, too, since 1901, Latin has not been an obligatory subject for matriculation. The condition of affairs in the U. S. is thus summarized by Ex-President Eliot of Harvard in an article in the *March Atlantic Monthly* on "The Case Against Completing Latin."

"From an analysis of the requirements for admission in seventy-six of the leading American colleges and universities, it appears that in a decided majority Latin is not essential for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, and that four-ninths of the institutions whose practices have been examined make no demand on the secondary schools of the country that they teach Latin."

In Britain, Latin is still required for entrance to the Arts course in Oxford and Cambridge, and even in the great new universities of Birmingham and Manchester. In Canada, Latin is necessary for matriculation into the faculties of Arts and Medicine in every

one of our universities or colleges, except the new University of British Columbia, where there is an option between Latin and Greek. This practically means compulsory Latin.

The present position of Latin in Ontario is beginning to be seriously challenged. The question of compulsory Latin, for instance, was one of the subjects for consideration on the agenda of this year's Matriculation Conference. It is true that nothing was done, or even recommended, but sooner or later the case for making Latin optional will be presented to the universities more cogently than it has yet been. Those who favor the retention of Latin as an obligatory subject would do well to remember this, and to marshal their arguments for keeping it in its present pride of place.

The case against it will be strongly pressed after the war, when, for a time at least, there will be tremendous energy expended in reconstructing everything, from our system of railways to our system of education. The practical man will be dominant, and will be likely to give short shrift to anything whose use is not obvious. And let me again remind the friends of Latin that its use, at any rate its necessity, is not obvious, even to men who do not lack either general education, or what we somewhat vaguely describe as culture.

Take for example the argument of Huxley against Latin—an argument now over half a century old. He begins, you may remember, with the thesis that "the diffusion of thorough scientific education is an absolutely essential condition of industrial progress," a thesis that no one to-day is likely to dispute. He goes on to say: "The fact is that neither the discipline nor the subject matter of classical education is of such direct value to the student of physical science as to justify the expenditure of valuable time upon either." Certainly the subject matter of the Latin required for University matriculation in Ontario—a little of Virgil and a little of Cæsar—does not justify the expenditure of valuable time because of any direct value it has for the student of physical science. Has it a value as discipline that would justify its retention as a compulsory subject?

The favorite argument for compulsory Latin has long rested on this doctrine of formal discipline. It was argued, it is still argued, that the study of the Latin language gives a training in logic and severe mental application that cannot be replaced by the study of

any other subject in the curriculum. Modern experimental psychology, however, claims to have carried this first line of defence by proving that the value of formal discipline has been immensely over-rated. The "discipline" given by a study of Latin cannot be carried over, these experimenters claim, into other fields of study. In a word, all mental training is specific, not general. The study of Latin, it is true, enables the pupil to study Latin or allied languages more effectively, but it adds little or nothing to his ability in business or scientific research or the art of living with his fellow-men. In short, the study of Latin affords no general superiority in training of intellect over that afforded by the proper study of any one of a dozen other subjects.

Is this argument sound? The whole question of the value of formal discipline is still unsettled, but so far as I can determine from reading parts of the controversy, the claim of the more extreme opponents of the doctrine, that there are no general results obtained from formal discipline, may be dismissed with the Scotch verdict, "not proven." I confess to a suspicion of the methods and the results of some experimenters. The young psychologist, with a reputation to make and a little ingenuity, can prove marvellous things by experiments with school children. He hits on some new notion and straightway makes experiments to bolster it up. Wading through pages of statistics which, the experimenters declared, proved the futility of formal discipline, I felt, as never before, the correctness of Bagehot's classification, "There are lies, damned lies, and statistics." We must remember, however, that the old defence of Latin based on the training it gave the faculties in general is no longer valid, especially against those who do not believe it.

Of course it is easy to point out that the opponents of compulsory Latin are at least as inconsistent as its advocates. Those who wish to have French or German or some branch of science either made optional with Latin or substituted for it on the Matriculation curriculum declare in one breath that the formal discipline of studying Latin is useless, and in the next that French or Chemistry gives as much formal discipline, and is besides a subject that can be applied in practical life. Their argument is like the choice given his victim by the sharper, "Heads I win, tails you lose." Those of us who have taught Latin in the High Schools, and have noted the progress made by candidates for Normal Entrance, most of whom

take Latin as a bonus subject, have been struck, I am sure, by a peculiar phenomenon. The ones who do not take Latin generally fall behind their mates in other subjects. I know how statistics can be made to lie, and refrain from using them, but still feel that the fact needs some explaining. It is true that the dull and the lazy generally try to drop the Latin and, having less to do, do ever less and less. But I remember, some eight or ten cases covering a period of four or five years, where, so far as I could judge, the students were not lacking in ability. Yet in every one of these cases I am thinking of, the student not taking Latin gradually dropped behind his equals who took it, in the subjects they had in common. If there is nothing in the doctrine of formal discipline, there must be a good deal in the habit of hard work. One recalls the remark of Sydney Smith, "The study of the classics is valuable because they make the life of the young student what it ought to be—one of considerable labor."

Let me recall your attention to the exact subject of consideration: Should Latin be required at Matriculation? There is no one, I take it, who wishes to have Latin removed from the list of subjects which may be taken for matriculation, but there is a growing number who wish to have it removed from the list of those that must be taken. Probably most of you will agree that English and History should be compulsory; many will add Mathematics to the list; almost as many will add Latin; but I doubt if a majority of you would agree on any other subject, with the possible exception of French. The real question, then, amounts to this: Should Latin be given a position in the curriculum that is denied to French and German, and Greek and Physics and Chemistry?

So far as matriculation into the faculty of Arts is concerned, I am, as yet at least, among those who believe that Latin should have this advantage. In the first place, I am prepared to argue that it has at least as good a claim as Mathematics, either on the basis of disciplinary value (if you believe in that), or on the basis of its utility in ordinary life. Of what use is any part of mathematics, except elementary arithmetic, to the overwhelming majority even of college graduates? Addition, multiplication and subtraction serve our turn, especially subtraction in these days of contribution to war purposes and war profiteers. Not a man of us, save some mathematicians who may have strayed in here by mistake, has had

for years to guess at the factors of an expression bristling with different powers of x and y , nor been called on to demonstrate or make use of the proposition that the area of the square on the side opposite the right angle of a right-angled triangle is equal to the sum of the squares on the other two sides. And yet I, for one, would not willingly have missed the pleasure, and, as I think, the profit, that I got from studying the crystal-clear logic of Euclid's geometry.

What about French and German? Undoubtedly French has special claims here in Canada, even beyond the strong argument that can be made for it as a necessary language for science or literature. "One could wish indeed that our High School graduates were able to read it when they finish their three or four years' course. How salutary it would be, for instance, to have every High School and Collegiate graduate in Toronto able to read the editorials in *Le Devoir*, and see for himself what the terrible Mr. Bourassa has said, instead of depending on the summary in, let us say, *The News*. The *bonne entente* might have a chance for its life.

The present is no time to discuss German, even if it is necessary for science and theology.

Everyone who wishes to become a scholar must sooner or later learn at least one of these languages, if not both. Are they, therefore, on the same footing with Latin? I am willing to concede that, for the university man taking a science course, they have more direct and far more obvious use. A reading knowledge of them is a necessary instrument for the scientist, and, to a greater or less degree, for every scholar. But a knowledge of Latin is by no means unimportant. The whole international vocabulary of science is Latin or Greek in origin (except German science, of course). Think of the student studying anatomy and getting the names of the muscles by sheer memory! However, one could hardly make out a sufficient case for Latin on this basis.

But before presenting what seem to me the real grounds for retaining Latin, I must say a word about Experimental Science. Its advocates never used to grow weary in telling us how it trained the powers of observation and made its devotees practical. I think we all know just how much value there is in science study for training the observation. The boy who is taking it makes, as I found, just as wild a guess as the one who isn't, when you ask him how many

windows there are in the east side of the school, or how many panes of glass in the window he has sat beside all year. Moreover, I haven't noticed that scientists are more practical than their classical brethren. I know some of them, at least, who aren't practical enough to apply the laws of physics, and empty a washtub with a garden hose for a siphon, instead of a wooden pail for a ladle. But the scientists talk, and I suppose will continue to talk, about the value of the study of science for its effect on the powers of observation, for its practical utility, and for the method of study, the proper method of study, that it breeds in its students. If it is so desirable there is something I don't understand in the attitude of the science men in our universities. They profess not to care whether physics and chemistry are taught beyond Junior Matriculation in the schools or not. Some even say they prefer to have science students who begin science at the university. Can one have too much of a good thing? I notice that students intending to take an honor course in Toronto are not required or encouraged to take Honor Matriculation in science subjects. English, Mathematics, French and German—if they take these at Honor Matriculation a year is cut off their Science course. Can we make a subject compulsory for Matriculation when its professors seem to think it a matter of indifference whether it be taught to their would-be disciples before these learners enter the university laboratories? And mind you I agree with the Science men in this, for, as Mr. Livingstone points out in his recent book, "A Defence of Classical Education," too much science when you are young spoils your appetite and capacity for more.

Here is an extract translated by Mr. Livingstone from the report by the Philosophical Faculty of Berlin University, made ten years after Latin ceased to be a compulsory subject for entrance to a science course: "It is emphasized by the instructors of chemistry that graduates of *Realschulen* (Modern Schools) do not stand upon the same level with graduates of *Gymnasien* (Classical Schools). Professor Hoffman observes that the students from the *Realschulen*, in consequence of their being conversant with a large number of facts, outrank, as a rule, those of the first half-year, but that the situation is soon reversed, and, given equal abilities, the latter almost invariably carry off the honors in the end; that the latter are mentally better trained, and have acquired in a higher degree the ability to understand and solve scientific problems."

Science, then, we may count out of the running.

Let us go back to modern languages. What advantages over them has Latin? In the first place, Latin (and this applies to Greek also) has underlying its structure a kind of mental process radically different from what underlies every other modern language. The student of Latin is compelled to work over his English phraseology and sentence structure in translating Latin in a way that neither French nor German makes him. It is for that very reason an incomparably better training in English Composition. It compels thought and experiment and careful judgment.

In the second place Latin is almost necessary for precision in the use of English. Leave out of count the conjunctions, the prepositions, the pronouns, the verbs *to be*, *to do*, and *to have*—all the cement of language—and a good 40%, perhaps 50%, of English is Latin in origin. The man who knows the original has an immense advantage over the one who doesn't. I make bold to say that one of the main reasons for the execrable English so often written by graduates of our practical science schools is the fact that these students never had to learn Latin. They have missed the training in discrimination among words that translation from Latin compels, and so they lack any lively sense of the exact meaning of words. There is a very interesting booklet issued by the United States Geological Survey for the guidance of those in its service when they are preparing papers for publication. The editor, Dr. Wood, head of the department, charges that as a rule practical science men are unable to use their own language with precision. He has page after page of illustrations taken from reports written by men who were B.Sc.'s or D.Sc.'s or Ph.D.'s. One short sentence and Dr. Wood's revision of it has stuck in my head. "The application of this metal is expanding along various lines," says the report. How much simpler and clearer it would be, says the editor, to write "The use of this metal is increasing for different purposes." This kind of inaccurate and inflated diction is what one gets all too often in the reports of our own Geological Survey. Now, I cannot help feeling that a training in Latin (just because it develops something of a conscience in the choice of words) goes a long way towards preventing such slipshod English.

In the third place, Latin is a difficult language, which the college student does not care to start learning. Unless it is required

for Matriculation, it will almost certainly be taken by fewer and fewer as time goes on until it falls to something like the present status of Greek in Ontario. French will be taken by three-fourths or more of the candidates if left optional, as it is now. I doubt whether one-fourth of the matriculants would take Latin in ten years' time if they didn't have to. Just consider how this omission would react on the university courses. The honor courses in science would be free of its burden; there would soon be a movement to have it removed from the general course, from the moderns course, from the English and History course. You would have specialists with a vengeance. The fine product of such a system would be like a certain American professor, a Ph.D., from whom I had the misfortune to take a course on the Liturgical drama. He was something of an authority forsooth on the Liturgical drama, and he couldn't stumble through a page of the simple Latin, in which these little church plays were written, without making half a dozen "howlers" in translating. Surely if we want scholars in History or in English or in the Romance languages, we must keep the language in which the sources of their knowledge is written.

Finally, the study of Latin is a short cut to at least a reading knowledge of the Romance group, French, Italian, Spanish. The point is so obvious that it needs no labored argument to enforce it.

On the whole, then, I believe Latin should be retained as a compulsory subject for Arts Matriculation. It is at least as valuable for either discipline or utility as Mathematics; the scientists seem to think little of the claims of Experimental Science; and to have an equal chance with French, if you will pardon the bull, Latin should be given an advantage over it.

The utility of Latin is not so obvious as that of a modern language, but it is none the less real because not apparent to every mushroom millionaire who in his after dinner leisure draws up new schemes for making education practical. The disciple who chants the praise of his dead masters in "The Grammarian's Funeral" saw the folly of trying short cuts to learning.

"Oh, if we draw a circle premature,
Heedless of far gain,
Greedy for quick returns of profit,
Sure bad is our bargain."

There is reason to fear that it will be a bad bargain for the universities of Canada if Latin is no longer required to enter their Arts courses.

MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT (J. HOME CAMERON).

(ABRIDGED.)

The address began by mention of the losses this Section has suffered in various ways; and notably through the resignation of an excellent Secretary, Professor A. E. Lang, on account of pressure of his regular work; and then through the death of Professor W. H. Fraser, to whose memory a tribute was presently to be paid by Professor Squair, who, with him, took a very prominent part in the founding of the Modern Language Association.

In the midst of these discouragements, it was consoling to have been able to persuade Professor Squair (now a Professor Emeritus after thirty-three years of service) to assume once more the duties of the Secretaryship which he and Professors Fraser and Needler had for so many years shared amongst them.

[The main body of the address was devoted to a consideration of some of the lessons which Modern Language teachers might learn from the disillusionment and the awakening brought by the War.] The exercise of great economy is one of the most obvious necessities of the present crisis. That all forms of material waste should be stopped, is self-evident; but there is often much wasted effort—great waste of that energy, which abounds in this happy country, and of which we are apt to be so prodigal. The War itself, while on the one hand, it exceeds in horrible destructiveness everything in the history of mankind, is, on the other, a great lesson in simplicity and economy of effort, for it is showing to the world what wonders can be accomplished by the whole-hearted and disinterested concentration of action. Now, are these costly lessons to be lost to Canadians; or are we going to mend our wasteful methods of work in the forest, the mine, the fields, the workshop, and the school? If not, how are we going to compete with the other nations who will have learned from the War vastly more effective ways of production and manufacture than we have ever

dreamt of? If all our men who return from Great Britain and France (our two mother-countries) are disappointed to find so many signs that Canadians do not realize the meaning of what is going on, is it surprising that they should feel anxiety about our future? Some things we can not escape: the financial burden of an enormous national debt, and our moral obligations to the thousands of our soldiers who come home disabled, as well as to the families of those who will never return.

What part are we teachers to take in the great reconstruction? Our first care must be to keep open minds and observant eyes. Enslaved as we are by excessive routine, our action may have to be largely individual at present, but it should not always remain so—There is new meaning in the old platitude that the teacher should be a centre of inspiration to the community. Our responsibilities were never so great. Look at our national problems. How can we break the tyranny of the spirit of party? How can we arrest the growing hostility between our races? How can we educate and Canadianize our foreign population? How can we most effectively contribute to the great union of the British Empire? Could we teachers ask for larger questions to debate? And there is now to be added to them this other, how to make sure that women are going to vote more intelligently than a large proportion of our men. What could be more timely than the formation of classes of young women (and young men as well) for the study of such questions under the guidance of an intelligent and open-minded leader, such as a teacher ought to be, and sometimes is?

And the work of the school, what changes are coming into it? There will be much greater emphasis on the useful and "practical." Technical education will have to be very much extended; it is the key to many problems, though not to all.—Young people will have to be more wisely guided in the direction of their educational needs, and saved from wasteful pursuit of studies for which they are not fitted—Our secondary schools are being ruined by multiplicity of subjects and inflexibility of curriculum. And yet room may have to be found for new subjects—Spanish, for example. . . .

Whatever may come or go, the proper use of our mother-tongue must remain one of the great foundations of all our education, and one of its greatest tests. Our schools might do much more than they do to prevent the rapid barbarizing of our language,

pronunciation, as well as vocabulary idiom. As that deterioration is not entirely due to so-called American influence, it is the more difficult to hold in check. The Modern Language teacher should be the most powerful ally of the English department of the Secondary Schools in the effort to get from the pupils the best English of which they are capable, and to teach them how to improve their own range and accuracy in the use of words. We all know the adages, "Every lesson in a foreign tongue is also a lesson in English" and again, "No one knows his own language till he has learnt to use another." There is a great deal of truth in these two educational commonplaces. And we must not forget that for those who would attain to delicacy in the use of English, some knowledge of Latin is absolutely indispensable—scarcely less so than it is for those who aim at a perfect command of French.—In the meantime, the command of English amongst University First Year students leaves much to be desired.

There are two important departments, however, in which teachers of Modern Languages, *if properly trained*, should have undisputed superiority to all others (1.) The correction of our vices of pronunciation, (and of any local dialectal peculiarities which it may be desirable to eliminate) by the use of that wonderfully direct instrument, the science of phonetics, in which we Canadians are so far behind our mother-country, to say nothing of the continental nations of Europe. (It ought to be assumed, as a matter of course, that when we attempt to teach any *foreign* language, we make some use of phonetic methods; the present plea is for their use in English as well.)—(2.) The teaching of English to our foreign population, as the most efficient beginning in the process of making them good Canadians. This work, as well as that of teaching them their civic duties and responsibilities we have scarcely as yet begun to face seriously. Our "Social Service" students should all receive training in the use of phonetic methods, such as similar persons, including prospective missionaries, do get in other progressive countries, notably the British Isles and the United States. The Modern Language teacher, trained in the proper way, is still better prepared for this work, by reason of the added experience in the understanding of foreign languages and points of view. [Reference was here made to the remarkable success of a long series of experiments with the alphabet of the

International Phonetic Association in teaching children to read and write their own language, and the extraordinary results attained, not only in the rapidity of their progress, but in their subsequent accuracy in ordinary spelling.—*e.g.* Mr. H. E. Palmer in *What is Phonetics* (Letter X.) reports among children learning English an improvement of 50 per cent. Professor Paul Passy is equally convincing in his pamphlet, *La Phonétique appliquée à l'enseignement de la lecture.*]

The experience of many years has everywhere confirmed the conviction that a smattering of phonetics is particularly dangerous, and that here nothing is of any value but a thorough training. Hence the existence, down to the very instant of the outbreak of the War, of numerous phonetic vacation-schools in Great Britain, France, Germany, and Switzerland. It is therefore encouraging to see that the Ontario Minister of Education is repeating this year his generous offer of a Summer Course in practical French, without fees or examinations, to all the regularly qualified teachers of the Province. [For an account of what was attempted in this way last year, and of Summer Schools for French in general, see *infra* the interesting paper by Miss C. C. Grant.]

[The last part of the address was taken up in pointing out and emphasizing the increasing demands that will certainly now be made of the Modern Language teachers within their own particular department.] Too many pupils leave the Secondary Schools and too many enter the Universities deplorably inaccurate in their habits, unaccustomed to punctuation, unable to follow with decent care the translation of a text from English or any other language, and too often quite ignorant of the foreign words (in French for instance) used to designate the very commonest objects, qualities, and actions.

[The simplest picture-vocabulary, of which there are several excellent ones, would help to remedy this defect]—People will now expect, with good reason, that our teaching of French should have much more life in it. French geography is now a fascinating subject, good maps can be had (too often, however, with characteristic British blunders, like “Liège,” “Chateau-Salines,” etc.); and the proper names of men and places in France can surely make French pronunciation interesting. Sometimes a returned soldier will be found who will be delighted to tell the pupils what he has

learned of the map and the people; and if his pronunciation is peculiar, he may have acquired that something infinitely more creditable to which we should take off our hats. (Cases can be cited where the disabled soldier has, as soon as he got his map, turned out to be a very effective lecturer, and when he had war-pictures of authentic value, he did still better.) Albums of maps and pictures exist in great numbers, and pamphlets issued by the French Government can be had sometimes from the French Consuls, resident at Toronto or Montreal.—The French Section of the school library should be looked after intelligently. A small grant from the School Board could, if wisely spent, provide most attractive reading-matter. A weekly paper like *Les Annales* could be subscribed for.¹ Any of the Universities would be glad to furnish a list of the best French books and pamphlets on the War. No better guide could be found here than our Secretary, who is always willing to assist the teachers in their good work.

As teachers of Modern Languages, let us be worthy of our inheritance. Let us meet our new responsibilities with that thoughtful sanity which our country needs so much. As we teach others, let us never cease to learn with all our might. Let us never forget that we have chosen it as our work to teach what are so excellently named in the speech of France *les langues vivantes*.

¹Interesting occupation could be made in searching for the meaning of the *grands mots de la guerre*, and the occasion of their first use. e.g. "*Jusqu'au bout*"—" *Pourvu qu'ils tiennent!*"—" *Debout, les morts!*"—" *Ils ne passeront pas*"—" *Nous les aurons.*"—" *Ne vous en faites pas,*" etc.—Many articles on the war have been collected by Professor Squair to form a little book, *En temps de guerre*. (Copp, Clarke Co., 1916.)

NECESSARY QUALIFICATIONS OF A LANGUAGE TEACHER.

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The XVII. century moralists, La Rochefoucauld, La Bruyère, de Méré, and the rest, who sought to establish the canon of gentlemanly manners for their time, were wont to enumerate the various qualities of the *honnête homme*—to wit, a pleasing and urbane presence, a ready tongue, the complete suppression of pedantry, and the absence of the least hint of professionalism. To these, however, they added a final polish and grace, which they were forced to call "*le je ne sais quoi*." That is what I shall try to establish for the art and practice of teaching language, and therefore perhaps this paper were better entitled "The Unnecessary Qualifications of a Language Teacher," though that depends on the point of view. "If you aim at the moon," says an Arab proverb, never too often to be quoted, "you may hit the tops of the trees." The teacher with high ideals will, in the final count, which is life-long influence on his pupils' method of thought, and therefore of expression, eclipse the pedagogue whose horizon is limited by the matriculation lists. But in any case this final polish and grace—scholarship we may term it incompletely—will so sharpen and poise the more material instruments of the craft that the work of preparing for examination will itself be more soundly and efficiently accomplished.

What, first of all, are the essentials—not the vexatious side-shows that the exigencies of our school system force upon the unresisting victims of Faculty curricula, method in plain sewing for the science specialist, method in physics and plumbing for the classical teacher, and so on—but the simple, ordinary equipment without which no man or woman can hope to teach French. From the teacher of French, then I would require: the ability to hold a simple and phonetically accurate conversation in that language, a clear understanding of the sounds and their production, exact knowledge of an elementary text-book of grammar, and the ability to write grammatically. That is the class-room minimum, or ought to be. Actually, I fear, many teachers aspire only to the last two.

for the simple reason that they are quite sufficient for examination requirements as they now stand, a position in which they are tacitly fortified by the attitude of persons who argue that the teacher fresh from school is better qualified to instruct, because he has the textbook at his finger-tips and a mind unsullied by the taint of extraneous ideas. Just now we are very sorely in need of ideas, and it is on the capacity for ideas that I would base the "*je ne sais quoi*."

Let us consider the objective of the first two years' teaching of French. Out of our class of, say 40 beginners, assume that as many as 20 will eventually matriculate—that is probably a high estimate—and that 20 will leave school after two years of the course. The problem is then to provide something for the half-timers, while at the same time interfering as little as possible with the routine progress that is a necessary part of examination work. It will, I think, be admitted that in two years there is little hope of teaching children to read even simple French with fluency, unless we are to devote all our attention to that object, to the exclusion of the writing knowledge at present demanded by the syllabus. And even then one would not be too confident of success. We can offer something to these two-year or one-year students by making our early teaching so broad as to develop an attitude of mind towards language in general; we must cultivate the *habit of observation*, that will later take note of variations in sound and vocabulary and probably result in speech-consciousness and act as a salutary check to the over-rapidity of speech-development on this continent. It may be that this is not an American, but a 20th century, acceleration.

This matter of speech is already one that commands widespread interest. The imitation of dialect is a recognized form of humor, and peculiarities of utterance play no small part in determining our first impressions of people.

We dislike our neighbor before we know him for a number of different reasons—because he takes a bath in the morning, because he does not take a bath in the morning, because he eats other food than we and that at unseasonable hours, because we consider his clothes to be affected or vulgar, and so on through the list of autocratic and democratic intolerances, major and minor; and prominent among them is the intolerance arising from difference of

speech, whether it be the mutual distrust of two languages in the same country, or the minor discord produced by variant utterance of the same language. In fact this influence is sometimes so strong that persons have been known to feel an almost physical pain on hearing a form of English that is unfamiliar to them, and that they feel instinctively to be wrong, even though this instinct may be wholly erroneous. For instance, the clear vocalization and accurate consonants of educated southern English produce an unpleasant irritation in the mind of an uneducated American—using the word in the continental sense. I once heard a boy say to a colleague of mine in a Canadian school: "I hate the sound of your high-pressure English." And it was true, though perhaps among the things that might be more delicately expressed. Contrariwise, the cultivated American knows very well that this same clarity and this accuracy are the canons of all speech; while it is certain vowel deformations and mannerisms that make what is known as "an English accent," a term highly annoying to the English themselves. None the less it exists.

It would be tempting to follow this path of digression, but the theme is foreign to our discussion, and I want merely to make the point that language is in itself a thing of universal interest, and then examine how we can handle our elementary French teaching in a manner to introduce the broader aspect of language, and enquire what are the special qualifications of the teacher for that purpose.

Well, the first and simplest lessons will be directed to the general question. You are doubtless familiar with Jespersen's excellent sketch of an introductory language lesson. With no technicalities whatever, he induces his pupils to examine for themselves the muscular movements involved in the production of simple sounds in their own language. Here is the first step, the knowledge that the vocal organs are an instrument that can be controlled as one controls the strings of a violin. This knowledge is directly applicable to the immediate work in French, and at the same time opens up a field of constant observation in pupils' daily speech. One does not, of course, expect to produce a class of phonetic prodigies—phonetic prigs they would be; but I think we might claim to be giving to the minority that will eventually think—a small minority, according to the pessimists—the foundation of a scientific method.

Obviously, our later teaching can only touch lightly and occasionally on the question of native speech, but it can and must use it with some frequency.

Here are a few suggestions as to the manner in which general knowledge and a faculty of observation can be brought to bear on the study of elementary French. They are concerned with vocabulary.

Vocabulary.

Ex. 1. Crayon, plume, connect directly with the same words in English. The general lesson lies in the limitations that some words acquire, though this is perhaps too advanced a notion for beginners. The teacher should have it always in mind in his own reading.

Table.—We may present the basic idea of a *board* and expand to table, tableau, tablette.

Porte is susceptible to similar treatment.

To take a few more examples at random: *La clef* will suggest *clef* in music, *gant* is *gauntlet*, *madame* can be divided into its component parts, *ville* presented as a component of *Brockville*, etc.

Pronunciation.

The teacher would deal in simple terms with syllabication, the weakening of consonants, syncopation, length and variation of vowels. As an example, it would be easy to contrast the French *particulièrement* with the syncopated English *p'tic'ly*, so often heard in careless speech. Such discussion would result in a clearer understanding of both French and English pronunciation.

Perhaps I am carrying coals to Newcastle in making these rather obvious suggestions, but my impression is that many teachers are afraid to use the time for what looks like digression. It is not digression. Regarded from the narrowest pedagogical viewpoint, such discussion is a valuable fixing exercise, while, if we consider it apart from the teaching of French, an object which our working conditions render very doubtful of attainment for half our pupils, I maintain that we are correlating the study of French and Latin, laying the foundations of observation habits, not for language alone, but for life in general. It is this observational side of language teaching that must be kept specially in view for the school-girl, now that Ontario has admitted women to the ballot. In

general, girls leaving school at fifteen or sixteen will have had little training in scientific method, and it becomes an even more important duty to us teachers to see that the women voters develop their capacity to put two and two together and examine for themselves the things that on the surface appear incomprehensible.

Feminine intuition does wonders, but without the habit of examination it is apt to confuse machinery with magic. If this is not so, why are husbands or plumbers so often called upon to replace tap-washers, while wives achieve far more complicated operations on sewing-machines.

To return to the "*je ne sais quoi*." What is the special qualification or capacity that will aid the teacher in establishing this inquisitive and acquisitive habit of mind? Obviously, the teacher must possess it to a high degree himself, and further, he must be trained to apply it scientifically to linguistic phenomena. I believe that such training is best acquired by three related studies: (i) a sound basis of Latin, with a wide vocabulary; (ii) a fundamental but not necessarily extensive knowledge of Old French phonology; and (iii) some training in practical phonetics.

Incidentally, this leads us to inquire whether Latin and French would not be a more practical grouping of Specialist subjects; they are allied by nature, and each would aid the teacher's comprehension and command of the other. If Spanish ever becomes a High School subject, it seems probable that the surviving remnants of German teaching will be handed over to the English specialists.

We are now in a position to summarize the qualities that go to make up the "*je ne sais quoi*" of language teaching—the qualities that must be present if the teacher is to reap the full reward of his labors.

He must be a student of language, with an ear attuned to catch the delicate variations of sound in the speech he hears about him, and indeed in his own speech. It goes without saying that he should speak his native tongue without defects of utterance—nasalization for instance—and without glaring provincialisms of pronunciation. If he knows enough of English to distinguish the many archaisms and Americanisms with which current Canadian speech abounds, he has one more means of making the language lesson interesting and one more object on which his own faculty of

observation may exercise itself. Since his profession is the teaching of French, it is his duty to read, write, speak, and think French at every possible opportunity, to make himself familiar with French achievements and French ways of thought; in short, to create a French atmosphere in his own mind. If this be ever so little the case, he cannot fail to diffuse an influence in the classroom; and his teaching will suggest that the affair in hand is more than the substitution of one set of symbols for another, as a mathematician might state the same equation indifferently in *a, b, c*, or *p, q, r*.

For our ideal teacher, language is a living and growing organism; he will, as it were, botanize in language, and will let his class see him do it, in the hope that they will try to imitate his attitude. For him the text-book is a guide and summary, but not the sum-total of all that need be taught; and his class will come to look on the text-book in the same light. This is important. How often does one hear book-fed children dismiss with a prompt and mildly vexed, "We haven't had that," some simple French word that a moment's thought would enable them to guess, while others whose language sense has been awakened will recognize difficult words by comparison with their English vocabulary.

Finally, he will be a master of method, knowing the ways of Gouin and Berlitz, and the Reform teachers, and the grammar-methodists, and the translationites, and the anti-translationites, and the free-compositioners, and the oral-compositioners, understanding the theories of visual and phonetic instruction, and all the other theories and practices, esteeming and despising them all by turns or together, selecting here a little and there a little, and combining the dose with that subtle and delicate something which is the "*je ne sais quoi*" of teaching.

SUMMER SCHOOLS IN FRENCH.

MISS C. C. GRANT, B.A.

It is not too strong a statement to make, to say that the majority of the Modern Language teachers in the Province of Ontario have no opportunity to speak with French people or hear French spoken outside of the classroom. The same may be said of the students in our Secondary Schools. The latter fact, however, though it is to be deplored, does not come within the scope of this paper. But it is of vital importance to the teacher that he freshen up his knowledge of French from year to year, for there is bound to be deterioration in one's own French, if the only French ever heard or spoken is the French of the schoolroom. Even if the best methods are employed, any and every method will fail if it has not under it the firm basis of a thorough knowledge of the subject to be taught. We teach the Classics for the mental culture such a study involves; but in addition to its value as a culture study, French is taught for its usefulness. In these days a knowledge of French means not only a thorough knowledge of the written language, but ability to understand the spoken language and to converse in French fluently and correctly.

Conditions before the war were more favorable to intercourse with French people, but since then, however much we admire the patriotic fervor that has called home to France the brave sons and daughters of our noble ally, we feel the loss of their presence in this country from a linguistic standpoint. Continental travel, too, is now prohibited. Formerly it was possible to spend six or eight weeks of the summer holidays in France, but now such a thing is out of the question. Of course this state of things is merely transitory, and after the war conditions will be normal again; but it serves to make us appreciate the privileges that were once ours, and may be again.

Attendance at a summer school in French is possible, however, without going out of the Province, as a course was offered last year in the University of Toronto, and I believe that Queen's University also has summer courses in French. The Scottish and English Boards of Education appreciate what it means to their teachers to attend

a summer school, in France, to such an extent that they pay the travelling expenses of those teachers who are willing to attend, and who present a certificate of attendance. The Teachers' Guilds of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Scottish Education Department, have arranged holiday courses in France for their teachers, and have done all in their power to encourage their teachers to attend. Canadians in small numbers have attended such courses, especially those under the patronage of the Alliance Française, but always at their own expense. In Canada, Montreal has been foremost in offering holiday courses to those interested in the study of the French language. Not every year have these courses been offered, but from time to time they have appeared.

I attended one of these courses under the patronage of the Alliance Française in the year 1910, and it was an inspiration to live for six weeks in a French atmosphere. The surroundings were as thoroughly French as it could be possible under existing circumstances to make them. The attendance was exceptionally large, students attending from all parts of Canada, as well as from New York, Boston, Buffalo, St. Paul, and other places in the United States. The ladies were all domiciled under the one roof, Donalda Hall being placed at our disposal, and we did not have to leave the building, even for meals or lectures. The men had rooms in the Y.M.C.A. and other residences. Meals were served in the large dining-room, and our classrooms opened off the adjacent corridors. It was an ideal building for such a course, with its large Common Room and numerous small study rooms and beautiful gardens, with McGill University only a stone's throw away.

The use of any other language than French was strictly prohibited in the house, and even when strolling around the city, sightseeing, the students were supposed to converse in French. The course consisted of an elementary and an advanced course. The advanced provided for lectures in French literature and history, while the elementary was eminently practical, consisting of periods in French conversation, reading, composition, and phonetics. It was the latter course that I attended. The mornings were devoted to lectures while the afternoons were free, except for small groups of five or six, who met for conversation under the guidance of special instructors, Parisian ladies who were living in Montreal. At the close of the course examinations were held and certificates

presented to the successful candidates. In the afternoons, also, excursions were made to different points of interest in the city, and sight-seeing is especially interesting in Montreal, a city so rich in historical associations. Homes containing beautiful collections of pictures were thrown open to the students, and it was a rare treat to visit these art galleries, accompanied by a competent art critic, who explained the beauties of the paintings representing the different schools of art. The evenings were devoted to lectures, study or illustrated addresses in French. At that time "Chantecler" was at the height of its popularity, and some of the evenings were spent in reading and discussing that play by Rostand. A whole day was devoted occasionally to visiting some point of interest at some distance from the city. One day we spent at Macdonald College, and another on the St. Lawrence River, taking a trip to the Rapids and back again. Everything was done to make our stay in Montreal pleasant and profitable.

Professor Walter had charge of the Phonetics, and a more thorough and painstaking teacher it would be hard to find. The word or sentence to be pronounced would go all round the classroom, and each student had to try to pronounce it correctly. I remember the morning the letter "p" was the subject of discussion. We did not all succeed in pronouncing it correctly, but Professor Walter's patience was inexhaustible, and his explanations of how this letter should be pronounced all that could be desired. As a text-book we used Dumville's "Elements of French Pronunciation and Diction," the same book used in the University of Toronto. From year to year the importance of the study of Phonetics is being realized more and more. Just before the war broke out, I was spending the winter in Paris, and attended the first course of lectures in French Phonetics ever given in the Sorbonne. They were delivered by M. Camerlynck, and as a text-book we used "Les sons du Français" by Paul Passy, and "Lectures Phonétiques" by Mlle C. Motte (Mrs. Daniel Jones). The course was attended by foreigners from different countries. It was an interesting study in comparative phonetics when M. Camerlynck would ask first an American, then an Englishman, a German, a Russian, a Japanese, or Chinese to pronounce in succession the same word, and hear the variations in pronunciation. An exercise of that kind shows how important the study of Phonetics is to acquire the correct pronounci-

ation of French. Mere imitation, unless one lives for years in the country, only results in an approximation to the sound. Whereas, if a study of the position of the vocal organs is made, the sound can be made more accurately and correctly. I found the course of lectures given by M. Camerlynck exceedingly interesting and helpful. Much as I should have liked to attend the summer course of the Alliance Française in Paris, it was impossible, as I was leaving France about the middle of July. When I left Paris the Serbian question was in everyone's mouth, though war was not expected. Two weeks later the war dogs were let loose, and since that time not only the Continent of Europe, but the whole world, has been forced to take part in a war for freedom, the like of which the world has never seen before, and it is to be hoped will never see again. Students and travellers thought themselves lucky to get safely out of the belligerent countries, and studies were forgotten in the vital struggle for mere existence.

For some years the Dominion of Canada has been singularly alive to the necessity of raising the standard of the teaching profession, and of making the teacher more efficient. In all the Provinces of the Dominion summer schools are an established institution. Summer schools in French have been established in British Columbia, Manitoba, Quebec and Ontario. The attendance at these schools is entirely voluntary, it being expected, however, that progressive teachers will wish to improve their efficiency by extending their knowledge of the subjects they are teaching. In Montreal, last year, the teachers were encouraged to attend the course held in July by being offered bursaries of \$25.00 if they were successful in passing the special tests given; and besides that, the Protestant School Commissioners of Montreal gave a bonus of \$15.00 to the teachers in their employ who completed the course successfully. For the first time, last summer, a summer school was held in connection with the Education Department and the University of Toronto for teachers who wished to become more efficient in French pronunciation and to acquire more fluency in conversation, and to appreciate characteristics, institutions, history, art and literature of the French people. The course was free to all teachers of French in the Province of Ontario, and the enthusiasm and ready response of the teachers was such as to show that they thoroughly appreciated the efforts of the Education Department

and University of Toronto to raise their efficiency. There were students not only from Ontario, but from Alberta, British Columbia and other points in Canada. The course was held in the University of Toronto and in the University High School, about ten minutes' walk from the University. The lectures were entirely in French, except the lectures on Phonetics and on Methods. To give as much individual attention as possible to the students, and to make the lectures profitable, the class was divided into two sections for conversation and reading, mainly on the student's ability to understand and speak French, though all the lectures were open to the students if they wished to attend.

Lectures began every morning at eight o'clock with Phonetics, taken up by Professor Cameron. If we were not thorough believers in the usefulness of Phonetics in teaching French before, I am sure we should be after hearing Professor Cameron's lectures. After an explanation of the different parts of the vocal organs by means of which sound is produced, the symbols and the sounds they represented were explained. Then came practical drill from Dumville's "Elements of French Pronunciation and Diction"; and it was not long before we were writing to dictation, using the phonetic symbols. This last year I have become convinced of the usefulness of the so-called triangle in teaching the sound of the vowels, and for rapid review and drill work in pronunciation. The triangle, with its eight fundamental vowels, may be easily presented to a First Form class.

We are especially indebted to Mr. Cameron for a wider vision and "glimpses on the other side of the mountains." We took down the name of many a book we should like to have in the school library, and lists of school helps. But I have been very modest in asking for supplies. I asked for a set of Rippmann's French Picture Vocabulary for a class of thirty-five, and a set of Dent's "Wall Pictures of the Four Seasons." They have not come yet, but I expect I'll get them before the end of June. Several members of the class subscribed for "*Les Annales*," a paper that comes weekly. It is an excellent paper for supplementary reading in the Middle and Upper Schools, and interests the pupils in the life of the French people and in their country.

The second hour every morning was a treat indeed, when M. de Champ delivered a course of lectures on the History,

Geography, Institutions, Art and Literature of his native land. We were enabled to understand better the beautiful country of France, with its varied climate and many peoples, all united under the tri-color banner.

For the rest of the morning the class was divided into sections, Professor Cameron taking one section while M. de Champ had the other. The conversation period was particularly interesting. We found M. de Champ to be a past master in the art of conducting conversation. Anyone who has tried to conduct a lesson in French conversation in a class of from thirty-five to forty beginners in Form 1, knows how difficult a thing it is. The material for conversation was based on pictures showing many phases of French life. The interest was maintained not by the subject matter of the pictures themselves but by entering into many by-paths suggested by them, and where the wonderful fund of information of M. de Champ about all things French was at our disposal. Two hours every afternoon were devoted to conversation, the groups consisting of ten or twelve persons. During the reading periods we read a modern French play.

Mr. Ferguson was the lecturer on Methods, and the Direct Method came in for a great deal of discussion. For those interested in the method as worked out by schools in England, the names of many books were given. Valuable hints were given as to the best means of studying the French verbs. It was unfortunate that these lectures took place at some minutes' walk from the University, and from twelve to one, the hottest part of the day. Some days the heat was so excessive that the lectures were cancelled.

For outside reading we had the use of the Library of the University, where we had the opportunity of dipping into some of the works of the authors of the present day, mentioned in the lectures.

The announcement that the Department of Education is arranging for another summer school in French for July will be received with enthusiasm, and those teachers who spend part of their vacation in increasing their efficiency will find that:

"Rest is not quitting
The busy career;
Rest is the fitting
Of self to one's sphere.

" 'Tis the brook's motion,
Clear, without strife,
Fleeting to ocean
After this life.

" 'Tis loving and serving
The highest and best;
'Tis onward, unswerving,
And this is true rest."

GASPARD.

SAINT-ELME DE CHAMP, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

De tous les livres publiés depuis le commencement de la guerre, *Gaspard*, dont je vais vous parler, est celui qui a obtenu le plus de succès. Des centaines de milliers d'exemplaires en ont été vendus, il a été traduit en plusieurs langues. L'Académie Goncourt lui a décerné son prix annuel.

De son auteur, je ne sais presque rien. Il s'appelle René Benjamin, il n'est pas soldat de profession. Il a été mobilisé donc il n'est pas très vieux, de 35 à 40 ans peut-être. Ses fonctions militaires l'ont appelé en divers points de la France depuis le début des hostilités. Avant la guerre, il avait écrit deux ou trois livres qui avaient attiré l'attention par leurs qualités de fine observation, leur ironie pas trop méchante. (Les Justices de paix. L'Hôtel des Ventes.)

La popularité immédiate de *Gaspard* est due à n'en pas douter au réalisme intense qui règne d'un bout à l'autre de l'ouvrage. Dans les temps où nous vivons, il n'est personne en France qui n'ait assisté à quelques scènes semblables à celles décrites par M. René Benjamin. On lui sait gré de les avoir fixées, pour ainsi dire, en des phrases colorées et vivantes, et cette espèce de contrôle satisfait que chacun est à même d'exercer sur un ou plusieurs détails nous est une garantie de la sincérité du tout.

Gaspard, naturellement, est le principal personnage, toujours en scène; les autres ne sont là que pour le mettre en lumière et lui donner occasion de montrer en détail ses défauts et ses très précieuses qualités.

Dégourdi, débrouillard, indépendant, frondeur, gai, farce, bruyant, grognant, plastronnant, d'une bravoure inconsciente et têtue, il s'en va, égrenant, au long de ces trois cents pages, en la langue verte et épicée du peuple de Paris, ses récriminations, ses avis, son enthousiasme, intermittent mais jamais éloigné, toujours à fleur de peau, flamme pure que la brise la plus légère ranime et transforme en foyer ardent. Et sa terrible blague à jet continu cache un cœur si bon, si humain, si tendre, si fidèle dans ses amitiés

que non seulement Gaspard nous est sympathique dès le début mais jusqu'à la dernière page, nous l'aimons malgré ses incartades comme un ami de toujours. Beaucoup de ses mots drôles ou sublimes qui foisonnent d'un bout à l'autre du volume, demeureront.

Gaspard est parisien, un vrai Parigot de la rue de la Gaîté. La mobilisation le surprend exerçant la profession de marchand d'escargots. Ce métier le fait vivre modestement en compagnie de sa mère, de son fils et de Bibiche qui est sa femme devant l'Eternel peut-être, mais non aux yeux de la loi. Combien de ménages Gaspard existaient en France avant la guerre vivant ainsi, suivant la jolie expression russe, "en libre grâce." Gens d'une grande honnêteté, simples, bons, s'aimant peut-être davantage et plus fidèlement que beaucoup d'époux dont la cohabitation a été régulièrement autorisée par M. le Maire, et bénie par un ministre de Dieu. Ecoutez Gaspard parler de sa Bibiche et de son mioche, et vous serez convaincus.

La mobilisation arrache notre héros à la vie civile et nous le trouvons pendant la première semaine d'août dans une petite ville de Normandie où son régiment se forme pour aller au front. La description de l'état d'âme de la modeste cité en un tel moment est d'une obsédante vérité pour nous qui avons vécu ces heures angoissantes. Déjà Gaspard domine la situation, il n'est rien qu'un simple fantassin de deuxième classe et pourtant il est le majordome et le boute-en-train de la compagnie. Son capitaine, pour lequel il a le dévouement d'un chien fidèle lui confie, à lui l'homme débrouillard, les tâches les plus ardues. Riant, plaisantant, blaguant il s'en tire à merveille. J'ai oublié de vous le présenter au physique; considérez ce portrait si joliment dessiné: "Ce Gaspard était grand, comme il faut l'être pour faire la nique aux petits et se mesurer avec les autres. Des mains d'homme qui ne travaille pas avec la tête, mais une tête à savoir se servir de ses mains. Lèvres humides, œil fureteur, cheveux rebelles, un brin de moustache satisfaite et surtout un nez comique, un long nez tordu mais honnête, ne reniflant que d'une narine mais de la bonne, si bien qu'il semblait que c'était le front curieux et remuant qui laissait pendre ce nez à gauche, pour pêcher dans le cœur, des idées et des mots." . . .

Et l'exode commence; le train part emportant le régiment vers la frontière. On y arrive. Marche de nuit, fatigue extrême. Gaspard est de mauvaise humeur. Un mot de son capitaine et le voilà de nouveau d'aplomb. Un type aussi ce capitaine, tout occupé

du bien-être de ses hommes, adoré d'eux, brave, peu parleur : chef précieux.

Et l'on va, l'on va toujours vers l'ennemi.

Gaspard n'aime pas les prêtres, ce qui, en d'autres termes, veut dire que ses sentiments religieux sont nuls, comme chez tant de ses concitoyens. Il ne perd donc jamais une occasion de taper sur "les curés." Mais voilà que la rencontre d'un prêtre lorrain patriote, brave homme et généreux vient modifier singulièrement sa manière de voir. "Pour un curé ça c't'un curé" s'exclame-t-il. Il n'en revient pas. Une heure après il en parle encore : "Moi, j'en ai connu des curés, mais des curés comme ce curé là, ça, il m'en bouche une surface." Et plus loin encore : "J'dis que c'curé-là c'est du prêtre, c'est pas de la saloperie."

Et la marche continue de jour et de nuit, écrasante, abrutissante, Après quinze heures, Gaspard "la gorge sèche et les pieds en compote, sentit sa fatigue plus forte que sa verve. Alors, il commença à grogner." Il récrimine contre l'Etat-Major et menace de tout lâcher. Sous la déprimante lassitude tous les hommes en sont là. Mais le brave capitaine Puche a entendu. Il connaît son Gaspard et sa pointe d'orgueil ; aussi, à cet éreinté, propose-t-il tout simplement de devancer la colonne et d'aller préparer la soupe à dix kilomètres de là. Plein de fierté d'être ainsi choisi entre tous, notre homme oublie fatigue et griefs. Tout guilleret, il accomplit de façon parfaite la tâche à lui confiée.

Aussitôt la soupe avalée, l'invraisemblable randonnée se poursuit, les grondements du canon se font plus distincts, on grimpe vers une crête. "Qu'est-ce que le régiment allait voir de là-haut ? Grand dieu ! il vit . . . ah ! les cœurs se serrèrent et presque s'arrêtèrent . . . car brusquement, le régiment venait d'avoir la première vision poignante de la guerre : l'horizon tout en flammes . . . Puis, en avançant toujours, les yeux rivés sur cet immense spectacle d'horreur on commença de croiser la file interminable et lugubre de tous ceux qui se sauvaient, bêtes et gens. . . ."

Sans trêve, les lieues succèdent aux lieues. Depuis trente heures on ne s'est arrêté que pour manger. Les plus faibles commencent à s'échelonner sur la route. Le capitaine Puche toujours plein de sollicitude, a, une fois de plus, une idée de génie ; à un vieux paysan qui fuit il achète un tonneau de vin. "Vin mer-

veilleux; vin un peu chaud des derniers coteaux de France, qui coulait dans la poitrine de ces pauvres diables fourbus, donnant à leurs corps une poussée de joie. . . . Un quart de vin pour un homme éreinté, c'est le délassement, le bien-être, la langue émue, le cœur qui rebat et s'attendrit. . . . Le vin! Quelle splendeur et quelle puissance! Des hommes dont le moral est en loques, abattus, abrutis, il vous les transforme en une troupe nerveuse, éveillée et qui repart en chantant."

Puis c'est la bataille, le premier contact avec l'ennemi. Il y a là vingt pages qu'il faudrait citer en entier. Gaspard y est sublime et le milieu d'une angoissante vérité. Gaspard chargeant sous la mitraille, Gaspard secourant les blessés, Gaspard atteint lui-même, Gaspard faisant ses adieux à son copain Burette mourant; autant de scènes inoubliables. Si vrai aussi le désarroi de l'ambulance provisoire! Et ce train de blessés! oh! ce train! qui décrivant d'incroyables zigzags s'en va à pas de tortue jusqu'au fond des ecins les plus paisibles du pays porter les sanglantes preuves de la tuerie qui sévit dans l'est et empêche la marée dévastatrice de s'étendre jusqu'à eux.

Voici l'arrivée à l'hôpital de la petite ville, si tranquille, si "temps de paix." Là encore Gaspard fait la conquête de tout le monde. Bientôt convalescent, il se rend presque indispensable. Mais le voilà guéri, et de retour à son dépôt. Il va être renvoyé au front et a droit à un congé, pour aller voir sa famille. Il en profite pour épouser sa Bibiche et légitimer ainsi son gosse. Malheureusement, il n'a que trois jours à lui et la loi en demande cinq pour que le mariage puisse avoir lieu. Qu'à cela ne tienne, Gaspard s'octroie quarante-huit heures supplémentaires et devient le chef légal de sa petite famille. Seulement, une fois de retour à la caserne, c'est la prison; malgré toute sa sympathie pour lui, le brave capitaine Puche ne peut faire autrement que de punir notre homme car non seulement il est en retard de deux jours, mais encore l'incorrigible a trouvé moyen pendant sa permission d'avoir trois querelles avec des agents de l'autorité. Je vous ai dit qu'il est frondeur, batailleur et que, comme tout bon Parigot, il déteste la police. Une de ses joies d'aller à la guerre ne vient-elle pas de ce que "on va enfin pouvoir se cogner sans que les flics ils aient rien à voir?"

Donc Gaspard repart pour le front sur sa demande. Il a de

nouveau un ami en la personne de Mousse, un brave garçon de professeur. Mais le front a changé en quelques mois; la guerre de mouvement sous l'éclatant soleil d'août s'est transformée en la hideuse lutte des tranchées, sous la pluie glacée, dans la boue. Guerre déprimante! Ecoutez et vous comprendrez pourquoi Gaspard se sentait l'âme trempée et ne trouvait pas d'autres mots pour exhaler sa peine que "Cré Bon Dieu."

"Avancer! on piétinait dans une pâte gluante, dont il fallait, à chaque pas, ressortir. Le pied glissait; la main s'agrippait aux parois: elle aussi s'enfonçait dans la boue. Le fusil tombait de l'épaule: la main boueuse le rattrapait et l'emplâtrait. En moins de cinq minutes, armes et vêtements, l'homme tout entier était empâté, englué, et ces cinquante soldats qui se suivaient à la file avec tant de peine, dans une crevasse de terre inégale et tortueuse, avaient l'air de lutter pour que le champ ne se refermât point sur eux. Des coudes, des pieds, des mains, des reins, de la tête, ils étaient comme des pétrisseurs de boue, enlisés puis se désenlisant, n'acceptant point d'être enterrés, geignant, pestant, se décollant et émergeant, hommes devenus taupes ou vers de terre dans une tombe où, vivants, ils rampaient, se raccrochaient, bourbeux, fangeux, désespérés, mais volontaires." Et ceci sous la double ondée de l'eau du ciel et des marmites. . . . Le lendemain matin de leur arrivée à la tranchée, Mousse et Gaspard, chargeant l'ennemi, sont renversés par la même bombe, le premier mort, le second avec une jambe en moins. Après vingt-deux heures de front, Gaspard reprenait le chemin de l'hôpital.

Nous le retrouvons béquillard mais nageant dans la joie, achevant sa convalescence dans une Normandie printanière, ensoleillée et fleurie. Il est de nouveau en possession de tout son bagout et de toute sa verve. Il est tout près de faire des infidélités à Bibiche, car elle a eu le tort de se lamenter sur la jambe disparue et il ne peut pas supporter ça; Bibiche le "poisse." Les choses semblent sur le point de ne pas tourner à l'honneur de notre homme et nous sommes en train de nous demander si notre sympathie qui s'ébroue le pourra suivre plus longtemps, quand un Américain, fabricant de jambes artificielles, ayant flairé en Gaspard le placier idéal, ramène la paix dans le ménage en offrant à notre fringant invalide une situation magnifique.

Gaspard restera, il a déjà pris sa place parmi les types qui

demeureront à jamais populaires en France parce qu'ils ont parlé à l'âme de l'humble comme à celle du lettré. C'est que, voyez-vous, Gaspard est bien de chez nous, il est dans la tradition gauloise. Il est l'ultime rejeton d'une lignée qui se perd dans les lointains du moyen âge et dont Rostand nous avait donné le dernier représentant. Parent pauvre de Cyrano quant au savoir, Gaspard lui ressemble comme un frère par le cœur et par l'esprit. Les trésors de tendresse et de pitié que cache sa verve étourdissante inspirent à ce Parigot de Montparno des mots et des gestes que le cadet de Gascogne n'eût point reniés malgré leur manque manifeste de préciosité. Oui, Gaspard survivra à l'atroce guerre et demeurera le prototype du poilu de 1914.

LA BONNE ENTENTE.

PROFESSOR C. B. SISSONS, B.A., VICTORIA COLLEGE, TORONTO.

The Bonne Entente is essentially a pacifist, and the Bonne Entente movement is a movement for a national peace—a national peace, wide, deep and eternal, based on righteousness withal.

The pacifist in these days needs excuse, or perhaps only definition. The other day a young man in khaki, now in Canada for nearly three years of war, was forcibly consigning pacifists to what he conceived to be their proper place. A friend who stood by, gently remonstrating, remarked that nearly all the men he knew fighting in France were pacifists. The difference in attitude between the bellicose young man and his friend was really not so serious as might appear. It was partly a matter of temperament, but mainly a matter of definition. The former regarded the pacifist as a man who believed in peace at any price; the latter, as a man who believed in peace, but peace based on righteousness. It is in the latter sense of the term that the Bonne Entente is pacific.

Some months ago I was discussing the problem of Quebec with a gentleman of some education and a political past. He was sincere, I think, and wished his country well, but he concluded his conversation with an emphatic descent of his fist and the words: "Well, the next job to be done, when we get through with the Germans, is to clean up Quebec." Oh, one says, here was surely an ignorant fellow, who knew and loved his watchword better than he knew and loved his native land. Not so. He was, I repeat, a man of some education, and he was not one of those who delight to refresh themselves annually in the waters of the Boyne. In fact, he was a co-religionist of the majority in Quebec. Not once, nor twice, have I heard a similar opinion. Occasionally one may see something approaching it even in the press. That is why I joined the Bonne Entente.

When the Fathers of Confederation determined that Canada should be one, they did so in the faith that two peoples differing in race and language, and for the most part also in religion, could yet live together in harmony and with mutual benefit. That was fifty years ago. They saw the vision; they followed the gleam. Or was

it were a jack-o'-lantern that they followed? Was it destined to lead us into abyssmal swamps, noisesome and inevitable? They framed a federation, believing that unity may be found in diversity, and that unified diversity has glorious possibilities of beauty and strength. Or was their creation merely a chimera? Was the lion—head, British enough, to be sure—to become attached in utter monstrosity to the goat and the serpent, thus destined to all eternity to breathe everlasting fire? Those who believe that the purpose of the Fathers of Confederation was high, that their vision was true, and their creation vital and vivifying, are worthy to be initiated into the mysteries of the *Bonne Entente*. Others may remain for a season without the temple.

But the faith that made Confederation, and that makes the *Bonne Entente*, is something more than the substance of things hoped for, the evidence of things not seen. It is at once the result of and the incentive to the careful study of the facts of history. In the *Bonne Entente* we are always at school. First of all, we seek to know our own country, and especially that part of our own country inhabited by what Mr. Arthur Hawkes calls the "Senior Canadians." That is why the Ontario section of the *Bonne Entente* went on its famous pilgrimage to Quebec. Some of us may have had an unconscious feeling of superiority, a touch of that almost universal malady of pharisaism, and may have gone with an idea that we must wake Quebec up, that she, being less righteous, might gaze upon our superior holiness and thereby be transformed. If that feeling was present, deep-seated in any breast, it was quite overborne by the general desire of the pilgrims to understand—just to understand. It was believed if we could only attain the point of view of the Canadian of French origin, we might hope to solve the serious problems that seemed to confront us and threaten the very foundations of our young manhood.

Of these problems two stood out most prominently. The first was the failure of French-speaking citizens to respond to the call of Empire in as large numbers as Ontario folk considered proper. The second was the apparent desire on the part of Quebec to make French equal with English in every Province of the Dominion, and to insist on their own people, wherever they might live in Canada, putting the French language first. These were the two outstanding problems—that of recruiting and that of bilingual schools. The

members of the Bonne Entente delegation went to Quebec mainly in order to study these problems. But they went with open mind and outstretched hand. A great deal depends on the temper of the inquirer. And in this case the investigation was accompanied by much good-fellowship. Hospitality was cordial and free, but that was simply in order that a proper atmosphere might be created for the frank and fearless discussion of the matters in question. This junketing became the butt of certain editorial jibes, for there is a species of mankind which thinks the most suitable place for settling points of difference to be the roped platform, not the banquet-table. On the contrary, we held that the banquet-table is the ideal place for discussion, the roped platform to be used, if at all, only as a last resort.

As to the problem of recruiting, we learned many things. It is possible to give five good reasons to account for the lack of response to the appeals in Quebec, only one of which can, in any sense, be construed as a reflection on the intelligence or the patriotism of the "senior Canadians." But it is not my purpose at this time to discuss this aspect of the work of the Bonne Entente. It is sufficient to say that one of the most prominent of the so-called Nationalist group of able young Frenchmen, a man whose command of English would shame most of us assembled in this Association, publicly at our first banquet professed his willingness to fall in line in case the majority of the Canadian people favored conscription. He will doubtless be present at the great Win-the-War Convention, shortly to be held in Montreal, a convention for whose organization Mr. John M. Godfrey, the Ontario Chairman of the Bonne Entente, is, more than any other man, responsible. One great result of the Bonne Entente movement, then, has been the clearing up of some of the obstacles in the way of Canada's presenting a united front to Prussian ambition.

The second problem, that of the place of French in Ontario (and other Canadian) schools, may more appropriately be discussed in this Section. I think it was the intention of your Secretary, himself an ardent and extremely popular pilgrim, that it should be discussed in this paper. Not the least of the good effects of the movement has been the lifting of the bilingual controversy above the mists of passion and prejudice which commonly envelop it. And especially in discussing a problem of race and language, and, to a

lesser degree, of religion, a spirit of tolerance and a well-informed mind are imperatively necessary.

There are three crucial questions to be considered by the Canadian who wishes to think and vote intelligently on this question. The *first* of these is the extent of the legal or moral right of the French to the use and study of their own language in the schools outside Quebec. The *second* is that of efficiency—the question as to whether a one-roomed school (taking the most usual and most difficult situation) can ever be expected to give efficient instruction in English and the other branches of study in case a knowledge of both French and English is desired.

Thirdly, we have the question, not by any means unimportant from the pedagogical point of view,—and now, since the decision of the Privy Council, the question is largely one of pedagogy,—that of the best means of ensuring for French children a thorough knowledge of English. These three crucial questions—that of *right*, that of *efficiency*, and that of *method*, have seldom been discussed with candor and thoroughness. It is safe to say that they are understood by few of those who so glibly express opinions upon bilingual schools.

Perhaps the spirit and purpose of the Bonne Entente cannot be illustrated by me this morning in a better way than by an excursion into a little corner of our own history, perhaps not familiar to many of you. Having taken this excursion, we shall be in a better position to discuss the question of any legal or moral claim to consideration the French language may have in the schools of Ontario. The question of the efficiency of a properly conducted bilingual school, and the question of the best method of teaching two languages in any school, though most appropriate for discussion in this Modern Language Section, must be passed over. We shall be content in this paper to review an incident of great historic importance as affecting the rights of the French language in Ontario, which has not received the attention it merits.

On April 9th, 1851, a memorial was addressed to the Board of Public Instruction of the County of Essex. It was signed by seventeen inhabitants of the school section, all with French names. So far as I have been able to ascertain, it is the first document of importance bearing on the bilingual question in Ontario. The memorial reads as follows:

"The Memorial of the inhabitants of School Section Number 6, in the Township of Sandwich, in the County of Essex,

"Respectfully represents:

"That your memorialists, considering the urgent necessity to forward elementary education in their school section, as well as in their township, as far as is in their power, are deeply affected and grieved to perceive that their efforts for that purpose are thwarted and rendered useless by the system of instruction introduced into our school section, as well as in other sections of this township, and we are informed

"That a set of school teachers have been introduced (and one in particular in our section) who is far from being qualified to be a teacher, within the meaning of the Statute, and otherwise wholly incapable of giving our children a good and wholesome English education—he, the said teacher, named Gigou, a Frenchman newly arrived in this country, an alien utterly unacquainted with the principles of the English language, and less with the practice of it, having been appointed to teach our children. Your memorialists conceive that they have a right to have their children taught in English because they have discovered by experience that French instruction alone availeth them next to nothing at all, being an ornamental rather than a useful acquirement for the inhabitants of this country.

"Your memorialists would therefore entreat the Board to take their case into favorable consideration, and by proper investigation cause this great evil to disappear, which evil, if suffered, will throw us back considerably from our surrounding neighbors.

"Your memorialists therefore earnestly pray to afford them relief; and, as in duty bound, will we pray.

"(Signed) JULIEN PARENT,
"(and sixteen others, with French names.)"

But there is always the other side. The counter-petition is dated April 14th. The three trustees of the section have subscribed their names, or rather Medart Gouin has subscribed his, and the two others have made their marks, being unable to write their names. There was nothing to indicate, by the way, that any of the memorialists did not sign their names, although certainty on this point is impossible, since, apparently, the original documents have



not been preserved. The points urged by the three trustees, two of them illiterate, are as follows:

"1. The district is one of the least of the country, both in the number of the children and in the state of the fortunes of the parents.

"2. The district is composed of families who speak nothing but French.

"3. For many years it had tried, without success, to have a school. Last year a resident of the place offered to teach French and English. He was unable to get together enough children to make it worth while to give lessons. The grant accordingly was lost, to the great regret of the fathers of families.

"4. The section, after repeated attempts, was unable to find a single master speaking the two languages.

"5. Mr. Gigou, a respectable man, speaking only French, came forward and we placed him in the school, with the permission of the local Superintendent, on the understanding that he was to undergo an examination in French when the Board met, two months later. No sooner had he taken up his duties than forty children entered the school, to the great satisfaction of the parents and of ourselves, who finally see our deepest wishes realized. To-day examination was refused the master because of the clause which demands knowledge of English."

The petition then concludes with this appeal "We ask the authorities that we be permitted to keep our good master, although he is not qualified for the English language.

"If your reply is not favorable, we shall again be without a school, in spite of which we are paying the taxes, while our children remain and grow up in ignorance.

"We hope, Mr. Superintendent, that you will be good enough not to abandon to a sad lot the part of the country which we represent."

On April 12th, S. J. MacDonell, Secretary of the Board of Public Instruction for Essex, refers the matter to the consideration of the Toronto authorities. After pointing out that the majority of the inhabitants of the Township of Sandwich are French-Canadian, and that most of the schools are conducted in French, he states:

“Of the candidates presenting themselves before the Board of Public Instruction and belonging to the Township of Sandwich, there has not hitherto been anyone who did not possess, at all events in some degree, a knowledge of the English language.

“Mr. Gigou, who came before the Board to-day, is entirely ignorant of it, and upon reference to the programme of examination prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction, the Board of Examiners felt constrained to refuse to grant at present a certificate of qualification.

“As, however, it might be urged on behalf of Mr. Gigou that in this part of Upper Canada, in the midst of a French community, the programme of examination should not be strictly adhered to, and that there would be an injustice in debarring a teacher from desiring a participation in the Government appropriation of moneys for schools because, although capable of imparting the elements of a good education, he conveys instruction only in the French language, the language of the pupils who attend his school, the Board have deemed Mr. Gigou’s case of sufficient importance to be submitted to the Chief Superintendent, as being decisive of the principle whether or not it is an essential toward the obtaining of Government support that teachers of common schools should deliver or be able to deliver their instruction in the English language.

“Previous to Mr. Gigou’s appearance before the Board, a memorial . . . was presented to the Board, on behalf of some very respectable Canadian habitants of the school section in which Mr. Gigou is keeping school. I must mention to you, in connection with that memorial, that Mr. Gigou produced a proper certificate of having taken the oath of allegiance, and also a very excellent testimonial as to character and capability as a teacher from Monsieur Pere Point.

“Mr. Gigou stated that there were about fifty pupils attending the school, all of them very young, and all of whom spoke the French language.”

Mr. P. McMullin, the local Superintendent, whose position corresponded to that of the County Inspector to-day, when forwarding the petition of the three Trustees, wrote a letter to the Superintendent of Education, in which he gave the additional information that objection was raised to Mr. Gigou by one of the

Examiners. He also stated that he saw nothing in the Act requiring that teachers must be acquainted with the English language. "There are several school sections in the township where the children cannot speak English, and it appears to me that a teacher who understands the English tongue would be of no use in such sections, as neither the pupil nor the teacher could understand each other. A teacher competent to teach English and French cannot be secured at all times."

Nine days later, on April 25th, 1851, a meeting of the Council of Public Instruction was held in Toronto, the Rev. Henry James Grassett, A.M., being in the chair, and three other members present, namely, James Scott Howard, Esq., the Rev. John Jennings and the Rev. Adam Lillie. In the absence of five members, one of them Dr. Ryerson, the Chief Superintendent of Education, then in England—though there is no reason to believe that he or any of the absent members would have disapproved—the Council ordered the following clause to be added to the programme setting forth the qualifications of teachers:

8. "In regard to teachers of French and German, that a knowledge of French or German grammar be substituted for a knowledge of English grammar, and that the certificate of the teacher be expressly limited accordingly."

It was further ordered that the above be communicated to the several County Boards of Public Instruction in Upper Canada, and on April 30th Mr. McMullin was informed that "there is nothing in the School Act to prevent the Board of Public Instruction for the County of Essex from granting a certificate of qualification to any persons upon passing the requisite examination, who shall have complied with the conditions contained in the second clause of the twenty-ninth section of the School Act.

"Mr. Gigou having complied with these conditions, as intimated in a letter I have received from the Secretary of the County Board, the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada has sanctioned a liberal construction of the programme for the examination and classification of teachers, making the term "English" convertible with the term "French," where it applies, and when applied to French candidates for the examination by the County Board. The certificate should, of course, be limited to teaching in the French language.'

"The School Act expressly authorizes trustees to employ any qualified teacher they please. Should, therefore, Mr. Gigou obtain a certificate from the County Board, the Trustees can engage his services, and no Board or school officers can prevent them, as has been assumed in a memorial transmitted to me by the Secretary of the County Board from certain inhabitants of School Section Number 6, Sandwich."

The letter is signed by J. George Hodgins, Deputy to Superintendent of Education.

This same Section 8, which made "French" and "German" convertible with "English" in the programme of qualifications for teachers, was again formally adopted on December 17, 1858, eight members of the Council being present, among them the Chief Superintendent, and again in 1871, so that no doubt can exist as to the attitude of the then educational authorities of the Province as to the position of French in the schools. The fact must be recognized that sixty-five years ago a teacher unfamiliar with the English language secured a certificate on the definite decision of the Council of Public Instruction. Its decision was arrived at almost certainly on what it believed to be the merits of the case. The members of the Council were not dependent on the suffrages of the people, "though subject to all lawful orders and directions issued by the Governor." The Chief Superintendent of Education, who was directly responsible to the Governor, served as a connecting link between it and the Government of the day; but the educational administration of Upper Canada was not yet organized as a department. At any rate, the Council saw fit to instruct the various County Examining Boards throughout the Province that in future a knowledge of French or of German grammar should be accepted in lieu of a knowledge of English grammar in prospective teachers.

Thus was staged the first act in the Ontario language drama, the denouement of which we have not yet seen. But from this first act almost all the personages who are still on the stage are, in type, presented to us.

First, we have the local Trustees, with large powers and lean purses. They are anxious to have a French-speaking teacher in charge of their school, and emphasize the difficulty, with their limited means, of securing one competent to teach both English and French. They readily accept a teacher who reads only French,

and who has the support of the parish priest. They place him in the school, and trust that their story will secure a certificate for him. Their own education is modest, and they are content with modest qualifications for their teacher. Opposed to them in hostile poise stand the minority in the school section. They are not sufficiently strong numerically to oust the reigning Trustees, but they feel they have a grievance, and they appeal to the County Board. They hold a knowledge of English to be indispensable, "French being an ornamental rather than a useful acquirement" for inhabitants of Canada. They are willing to subscribe their names to a protest, and thereby incur the hostility of their neighbors, and it may be, of the priest. The Local Superintendent, or Inspector, however, is less true to type. For one thing, he boasts an Irish name, and the Irish and French in these later days have been mixing about as comfortably as fire and water. He is clearly not a very close student of English himself, if one may judge from the sentence: "It appears to me a teacher who understands the English tongue would be of no use in such sections, as neither the teacher nor the pupil could understand each other." Apparently, he is trying to voice the sentiment that a teacher whose native speech is English would be useless as a teacher of children whose native speech is French. But this contention, so fundamental to the whole discussion, we cannot discuss. It is interesting to note that it is put forward by an official in the very first stage of the controversy.

The Council of Public Instruction, or Department of Education, also is hardly normal. There is no uncertainty or indefiniteness about its position. Of course, being like the Commissions of to-day, somewhat removed from the arena of politics, it was not compelled to consider the effect that its actions would have on various sections of the electorate. Realizing the very large powers conferred by the Act on local Boards of Trustees, it turned a deaf ear to the representations of the seventeen insurgents. But, more than that, it determined that the mere question of language should not stand in the way of any teacher. Clause 5 of the programme setting forth the very modest qualifications for third-class teachers, had read: "To know the elements of English grammar, and to be able to parse any easy sentence in prose." The addition of Clause 8, which made French or German convertible with English, removed the necessity of any knowledge whatever of English grammar on

the part of a teacher of Upper Canada. One of the duties of the County Board was "to adopt all lawful means in their power, as they may judge expedient, to advance the interests and usefulness of Common Schools." Believing that he was acting in conformity with his duties, one of the members of the Board had objected to Mr. Gigou as a teacher. The Board had recognized the force of his objection, and had refused the certificate pending a ruling by the Council as a higher authority. The ruling was given promptly and definitely. Its historical importance cannot be overestimated.

By this action, then, the Council of Public Instruction sanctioned the exclusive use of French in any of the schools of Upper Canada. In a letter, dated the 24th of April, 1857, and addressed to the School Trustees of Charlottenburgh, of the County of Glengarry, Dr. Ryerson sanctioned the use of both English and French in the same school, thereby giving the first recognition to the bilingual school. The letter runs:

"Gentlemen,—I have the honor to state, in reply to your letter of the 16th, that as the French is the recognized language of the country, as well as the English, it is quite proper and lawful for the trustees to allow both languages to be taught in their schools to children whose parents may desire them to learn both.

"I have the honor to be, gentlemen,

"Your obedient servant,

"E. RYERSON."

This last letter has frequently been quoted, and has been used by the lawyers on the French side in the costly litigation over Regulation 17. The correspondence of 1851, for some reason, has not been noticed or used in the courts. It may be that its suppression was due to the fact that it was not favorable to the extreme contention of either party. It would be comforting to the French to know that Dr. Ryerson and his associates were quite willing to stretch the qualifications for Third-Class teachers so as not to exclude a man entirely unfamiliar with English but it was not convenient to have it recalled that the first document bearing on the bilingual question in Ontario was a spirited protest from seventeen Canadians of French origin against the policy of introducing purely French teachers, whose qualifications had recommended them to the curé. Even less favorable, perhaps, was the correspondence to the position

of those who contended that French had no legal or even moral claim to consideration in the conduct or curricula of Ontario schools. Recently, for instance, I was surprised to hear the head of a department in the University of Toronto make the statement that French never had any rights in the Public Schools of the Province. He was supported by an associate professor, who claimed to be thoroughly familiar with the literature of the controversy. As a matter of fact, this is true neither of 1851 nor of 1917, nor of any time between the two dates, unless one adopts the fantastic position that all our laws and rights were made and conferred by the Quebec Act. It is true that Ontario has always been competent to legislate as it chose in the matter; but happily, it is also true that Ontario, neither now nor at any time in the past, has seen fit entirely to bar French from the schools.

However, while even University professors are misinformed, and while misunderstandings are hardening into bitterness, much useful missionary work may be done by the *Bonne Entente*, not less in Ontario than in Quebec. Mr. Chairman, I should covet the pleasure of moving, seconded by Professor Squair, that all members of this Section be initiated into the mysteries.

THE CLAIMS OF SPANISH IN OUR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

MILTON A. BUCHANAN.

The title of this paper was suggested to me by Professor Squair, Secretary of the Modern Language Section. He had probably heard that, prompted by my sense of duty, I had called attention to the anomalous position of Spanish in the curriculum of the University of Toronto, and that the Senate had, in its wisdom, restored Spanish as a General Course subject of the first year. The extraordinary popularity of Spanish at the present time in England and the United States, and the valid reasons for such popularity, have also prompted a demand for more favorable consideration of Spanish in the Modern Language course of our University, the only Canadian university in which provision is made for its study. This morning I have the honor of presenting to you some arguments for its claims to consideration in our general educational system, and I take it that it is my privilege to keep in mind not only the universities of this Province and of other Provinces of Canada, but also our Secondary Schools.

The best argument that can be advanced is a practical one: the place which the study of Spanish already holds in the curricula of other countries. If it can be shown that other countries, especially other English-speaking countries like Great Britain and the United States, are more mindful of their national needs, and that we are neglecting an opportunity in our educational system, I need not on the present occasion insist overmuch upon a whole series of reasons for urging the claims of Spanish in Canada.

Spanish, or Castilian, which has been deservedly called the "noblest daughter of Latin," because of the purity of its vowels, the richness of its vocabulary, and its stately, measured cadence, is probably the most extensively-spoken language in the world. Outside of Spain and the southern half of our American Continent, including large portions of New Mexico, Texas, and Southern California, it is spoken in Morocco (Oran) by about 100,000 people, by about the same number of Spanish-speaking Jews scattered throughout the Turkish Empire, and in the Philippines. The

Castilian language is used in 23 countries, with a population of 116 millions. On the American Continent, about as many people speak Spanish as English. Spanish and English are the only languages which have profited by the discovery of the New World. French is a possible exception to this generalization, but in Louisiana and the New England States, if not in Quebec, French has lost ground. From the Rio Grande to Cape Horn, except in Brazil, where Portuguese persists as French does in Quebec, Spanish absorbs all other languages, including English. Spanish is therefore destined to remain the language of the southern half of our continent. That of itself ought to make the study of this language of special interest to us in the northern half.

Spanish literature has for centuries made a strong appeal to the mind and the heart of English-speaking people. That rare combination of humor and realism that is never gross, is not alone characteristic of Cervantes, but is the distinctive quality of Spanish life, Spanish art, and Spanish letters. They have inspired memorable pages in Scott, Borrow, Washington Irving, Ticknor, and Prescott. In balladry Spain has hardly an equal; in the richness of striking proverbs, none. In the picaresque novel and *Don Quixote*, in the inimitable *Exemplary Novels* of Cervantes, Spain has taught the world of letters an interest in real life. In the drama, from the plays of Lope de Vega, Alarcon, Tirso de Molina to modern playwrights like Benavente, Quintero, Hermanos and others, it is no exaggeration to say that Spanish literature holds a unique position. Allow me to remind you that French comedy began, in 1643, with Corneille's *Le Menteur*, an adaptation of Alarcon's *La Verdad Sospechosa*, and French drama, in 1636, with *Le Cid*, an avowed adaptation of a Spanish original, Guillén de Castro's *Las Mocedades del Cid*. The excellent qualities of Spanish literature and the indebtedness of other literatures to that of the Peninsula are interesting topics for discussion, but further reference to them on this occasion would be an unpardonable digression.

Because of its constant endeavor to depict real life, and its skill in portraiture, Spanish painting is very highly esteemed. A modern artist like Sargent goes to Madrid on an annual pilgrimage to derive inspiration from the originals of Velázquez, hanging on the walls of the Museo del Prado. Living painters like Sorolla and Zuloaga cause a furore wherever and whenever their works are exhibited.

There is an individuality about Spanish art which makes it different from the art of any other country, and the difference lies not in sensational extravagance of fleeting interest.

In architecture and archaeology, Spain is a veritable museum of strong and beautiful creations. There are found side by side the masterpieces of civilization, the Roman, the Gothic, the Moorish. The exquisite decorations of the interior of the Alhambra and the Alcázar of Seville, with their delicately-wrought interlacing and figures, and the iridescent "*azulejos*," are of themselves a sufficient reward for an interest in Spain.

To the modern student Spain has further charms. The country is rich in libraries and archives. At Sismancas and at Seville exist such rare documents relating to America and in such abundance that the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Learning now employs there a staff of scholars to copy and examine material of interest to historians. It is recognized in universities that for work in history, whether American or European, Spanish is a prerequisite.

I come now to more practical considerations. You have all read in your newspapers of the extraordinary interest in Spanish shown in England and the United States during the past few years; to be more explicit, since the outbreak of the war in Europe. A few years earlier, a chair of Spanish was established at the University of Liverpool. Within the past two years chairs have been founded at Leeds and at London. A well-known publishing house is authority for the statement that the number of Spanish text-books sold in England during the past year was three times greater than during the previous year. German is no longer studied to any considerable extent in British schools, partly because there are no native teachers available, but chiefly because of the antipathy to everything German. A subject that cannot be taught with enthusiasm is not worth teaching.

In the United States, where there is not that rigid organization in educational matters which frustrates progress in the Province of Ontario, Spanish has taken high schools, colleges and universities by storm. Until very recently, the people of the United States have not had the same outlet for their antipathy toward Germany that we in the countries at war have enjoyed. But they have had a weapon

that our young people have not been able to use. They have had the privilege of dropping the study of German, and they have done so. In its stead they have taken up the study of other languages, especially Spanish. When I learnt that there are nine men in the DeWitt Clinton High School, New York, who teach nothing but Spanish, and that their enrolment in Spanish is 1,234 students, I began to fear for my country, for there is a practical, commercial aspect to the matter, which has been even a greater factor than a sentimental one in this sudden popularity of Spanish in the United States.

Spanish has long been a popular study in the country of Washington Irving, Ticknor, and Prescott. Witness the fine Spanish collections of books and art in the Boston Public Library and the Hispanic Museum of New York, where a modern Medici, Archer M. Huntington, has gathered together treasures of priceless value, and has made them accessible to the general public. With the Spanish-American war and the acquisition of Spanish territory, came a new impulse to the study of Spanish and a very considerable increase in the number of students electing that subject. Chief interest still lay in the study of Spanish literature and history, and little or no attention was paid to South America. True, most of the new grammars that appeared made some effort to teach the rudiments of commercial correspondence, and some text-books were published which were wholly commercial in their appeal. Meanwhile Pan-American conferences and organizations, well endowed and enjoying support from many governments, were calling attention to the need of a better knowledge of South American affairs. The opening of the Panama Canal invited new efforts to develop trade with South America, and the enrolment in Spanish grew apace. Then came the European war, cutting off communications between Germany and South America, and disclosing to the United States and other countries new and vast commercial possibilities. The demand for a practical knowledge of the Spanish language has since grown so rapidly that schools and universities have found it impossible to cope with the situation. The University of Washington, with a staff of seven teachers of Spanish, was forced to turn away 200 students in the fall of 1916, for lack of instructors. At Harvard, there are this year 600 students in Spanish courses. At the University of Chicago, the attendance in this language has increased

threefold in eighteen months. The increase at the University of Michigan is typical: 1914, 110; 1915, 225; 1916, 450. Harvard University now accepts Spanish for matriculation, as do also the State authorities of New York.

So much for universities. The following letters will show what is taking place in the High Schools of the United States. The first is from Professor, of the department of Romance Languages of Harvard University:

"I have no collected data to give you regarding the very obvious fact that Spanish has assumed enormous importance in the curriculum of the schools and academic institutions of the United States. So great was the demand for text-books this fall that firms publishing them found the editions exhausted before the classes were supplied. Everywhere over the country, except where the German population prevails, Spanish is supplanting German as the modern foreign language to be studied. Here at Harvard and Radcliffe College, we have about 600 students in the various Spanish courses. In the preparatory school (High and Latin School) of Cambridge alone, with a population of about 110,000, there are 800 pupils taking Spanish. The Institute of Technology, which hitherto has had hardly any instruction in Spanish, found itself confronted with a request for a course from 120 students. As you probably know, Harvard now accepts Spanish as an entrance examination subject."

The second letter which I shall read is from Mr., of the Central High School, Detroit, Michigan:

"We introduced Spanish in this High School some six or seven years ago, but were forced to discontinue it because of insufficient teaching force. Because of the demand, we introduced it again some four years ago, and now have two teachers with an enrolment of 236 pupils this year. The subject has increased in popularity, and would have a still larger number electing it, could we arrange to accommodate them. In our school,—and I think this is the experience in other High Schools and, to some extent, in colleges,—the popularity of Spanish has had the effect of decreasing the number of students electing French, and a marked effect on the number electing German."

The last letter, and I am only quoting typical letters, is from Mr. of the Spanish Department of the DeWitt Clinton High School, New York:

"We have in our Spanish classes at present (December 11, 1916), 1,234 students in a school the attendance of which is about 5,000. There are nine men who teach nothing but Spanish. This is an academic High School. In the commercial High Schools of the city the numbers are larger. The Commercial High School of Brooklyn has nearly 2,000 in the Spanish courses. The High School of Commerce of Manhattan has probably 1,700. Spanish is now accepted by the State authorities on a par with French and German, year for year, for the College Entrance Diplomas granted by the State Regents. Cornell University has recently announced the acceptance of Spanish as one of the subjects that may be offered in the State scholarship examinations (for free scholarships of four years). French in our schools seems not to be affected by the increase in Spanish. German and Latin are"

What, it may be asked, is Canada doing in the matter? Our universities, with the exception of the University of Toronto, have neglected Spanish entirely. At our Provincial University, the study of the language has suffered greatly from unfortunate restrictions, and Spanish will continue to hold an inferior position to German until a much-needed reform in the curriculum is effected. It ought to be possible to devise a programme in which French, the modern language par excellence, and especially in Canada, is given a preference, and in which Spanish is given second place. There have been sporadic appeals to our Department of Education to make provision for the study of Spanish in our secondary schools, but thus far without success.

The Department of Trade and Commerce at Ottawa has shown more interest in the matter, and has published a "*Handbook for Export to South America*" (1915). "Canada," the pamphlet observes, "has an exceptional opportunity to secure a footing in South American markets. There is a chance for her to gain a position that otherwise might take ten years to accomplish. . . . From the standpoint of commercial utility in relation to Canadian exports, next to English, Spanish easily stands first. One very important feature which should be kept clearly in view is that it affords an entry to countries that produce raw material, but manufacture to only a small degree. . . . The United States"—I am still quoting from this well-informed pamphlet—"are making great efforts to take advantage of the present abnormal

situation, and whilst the principal European manufacturing countries are preoccupied with war, to consolidate and greatly extend their trade with Latin America. This movement is of importance to Canada, and should be closely followed. Heretofore, Latin America has looked principally to Europe to supply her with those goods which she does not produce herself; as a consequence of this, trade has fallen into a rut from which, in the ordinary course of events, it would require no small force to dislodge it. But the upheaval caused by the present war has largely upset established conditions, and is providing the force, mentioned above as being necessary, to bring about a rearrangement of the avenues of trade. Such a phenomenon as this, from the viewpoint of commercial relations between the United States and Latin America, can be only favorable to the former, and that their most progressive business men have realized the fact is abundantly evident." The exports of Germany to South America in 1912 were about \$160,000,000; those of Canada in 1914 only \$3,326,863.

Our national needs at the moment call for more attention than in the past to Science and Modern Languages. Our future prosperity depends upon the way in which our universities and schools encourage industrial research and the conversational knowledge of French and Spanish. It is only a question of readjustment to new conditions. If we Modern Language teachers fail in our duty, it is not for lack of sufficient warning. If, as during the present session at the University of Toronto, we require two hours of Middle High German in the Fourth Year, and thereby make it next to impossible for students to devote sufficient time to Modern French or Modern Spanish, the day is not far distant when reform will come from without, and not, as it ought to, from within.

Our first duty is in the University. We must make it possible for our Modern Language specialists, the teachers of the future, to take Spanish without the obstacles that have been placed in its way not only by the Education Department of the Province, but by Modern Language teachers in the University itself. But for the untiring efforts of the late Professor Fraser, Spanish would no longer be upon the curriculum of the University of Toronto. In the very year of the opening of the Panama Canal, members of a certain department waged such a fierce war upon it that only the intervention of President Falconer saved Spanish as a subject for

specialists. In the General Course, their efforts were more successful, and as a consequence, during the following year, because of restrictions imposed, the attendance in Elementary Spanish dropped from 48 to 4! This was a year before war broke out in Europe. As I stated at the beginning of this paper, the Senate of the University has rectified this error. The next step is to reorganize our Modern Language course so that English, French and Spanish shall be required for four years, with Italian and German as optional subjects. Old English, Old French and Old High German can well be held over for study in our Graduate School, where such subjects properly belong. By doing so, much more time would be available for practice in conversation, for it is here that we Modern Language teachers have thus far failed. For this failure, the Universities blame the High Schools, and the High Schools the Universities; but we are all to blame, and I should like to see a whole meeting of the Modern Language Section of this Association devoted to a thorough-going discussion of this serious problem.

There remains only one point, and that concerns the introduction of Spanish in our High Schools. Professor Alfred Baker has, in a most disinterested way, championed this cause, and as a preliminary step has asked the Universities of this Province to recognize Spanish as a subject for matriculation. The Senate of the University of Toronto has expressed approval of the innovation, and no doubt action will be taken in the matter soon. No language would be so popular with our pupils in the secondary schools. The pronunciation is very easy; the sounds are soft and melodious, the grammar simple and regular, with a gratifying absence of exceptions; and, finally, there is already accessible an excellent collection of interesting texts. In our High Schools there are enough graduates in Spanish to make it possible to begin the study at once. Provision could be made for courses in Spanish in our Summer Schools for those who are not already prepared to teach it.

THE CHURCH AND STATE IN FRANCE.

PROFESSOR J. S. WILL, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

Not so very long ago it would have been impossible to discuss this question openly and without prejudice. Our minds were poisoned against the French Republic. Our traditional detestation of the French Revolution, the legacy of our own wars with France at that time, combined with our ignorance of the real significance of the problems at stake in the political life of that country during the course of the 19th century, as well as with our impatience at being disturbed in our smugness by the intrusion of new ideas, led us to view with intolerance any fresh upheaval in, as it seemed to us, an unnecessarily disquieted country.

Because we did not understand that country we condemned it. From every quarter anathemas were directed against it. Said the Archbishop of Westminster, as if separation and dechristianization were one and the same thing: "The pretext of independence but ill conceals hatred of the Church, and with it, hatred of Christianity. The great French nation can never find its true development unless it provides for the life and prosperity of a church that represents historic Christianity in the country." In Huron County, Ontario, at the same time, an attempt was made to boycott articles of French manufacture. These instances represent fairly well the general uninformed attitude toward France at the time that the separation of Church and State was in process of consummation.

It is possible now, however, to approach the question dispassionately. In France itself, even before the outbreak of the war, the bitterness of fifteen years ago between clericals and anti-clericals had died away, and our minds were free from the echo of that discord. But the chief change is in ourselves. The development of our altered attitude toward the "Queen of Nations" would make an interesting study in national psychology. Do we know France better? Certainly we love her more. Her name is just now one to conjure with. For this change the affiliations of diplomacy and war are largely responsible. The Entente Cordiale closed a century of misunderstandings. It was established when the separation struggle was most bitter, and was due to political exigency, not to mutual

love between the two peoples. It was welcomed in the British Empire not because we knew that an alliance with France was our glorious destiny, but because it was fostered and concluded by a great representative Englishman, of whom we were very proud, and who, more than any other statesman and more than most men of his time, understood the French race and was understood by it. Not the popular voice, but the instinct of Edward VII., guided a none too eager people to its true racial and spiritual affinity on the Continent of Europe.

This bond has been made indissoluble by the war. The patience of France, her unanimity and high courage, her sufferings and endurance, have captivated our minds and changed our mood. Accustomed to regard France as the symbol of lightness and frivolity, as incapable of self-control or self-direction, we have grown ashamed of these thoughts as we watched her imperturbable calm and unmoved determination in the most titanic attack a nation has ever experienced upon her physical and moral resources. We have seen a vision, and France has become real to us. We see her as Joan of Arc, quieting the tumult in her own bosom, divesting herself of the garments of her feminine delicacy, and clothing herself in the armor of light and immortality. In the presence of that vision, all our petty thoughts and suspicions die away.

There are many persons who account for this vision by supposing a new France. The France of to-day, calm, strong, victorious, is not, they say, the France of yesterday. This is a poor and shallow self-deception. Shall a nation change its soul overnight? The Prussia of to-day is the Prussia of yesterday. The France of 1914 and 1917 is the France of yesterday. It is the France of 1870. The difference is that the France of 1914 was in better hands than the France of 1870. Her government in 1914 was in finer moral order, was more capable and less corrupt than her government of forty-seven years ago. We like to say "A New France," "France Herself Again," "France has found her Soul." Let us not pay ourselves with words and invent new phrases as a cloak for our misunderstanding. What we mean is, our eyes have been opened. We have ourselves seen a new vision, the more blinding to us in that our sight was so dark. We have made a discovery. The discovery is that France really, all the while, had a soul.

It is true that there has been some excuse outside of ourselves

for our shallow judgment. For more than a generation France has seen much dispeace at home. Strident voices have been heard. Unseemly quarrels have taken place. Unwise acts have been done. Shameful words have been spoken. Vulgarities have been evident. But these sounds—not, after all, peculiar to France—had died away. The crisis had passed. When the great call came, France knew herself for what she had always been, a great nation, united and unafraid. In spite of its tendency to wrangle, democratic France found itself capable of the great task it had set out to perform. Crutches and apologies might be thrown away. France was whole at heart.

That is the great fact. After more than one hundred years of struggle, disheartening and sickening, French democracy has triumphed. The war has proved it. Finally, inexorably, the Marne and Verdun have sealed the doom of any factional spirit hostile to a democratic France. The travail of a century is completing itself. France is being justified.

This struggle against mediaevalism has been world-wide. Circumstances of a political and temperamental kind have made the fight more pronounced and bitter in France than elsewhere. There the old and the new fought uninterruptedly during the century that has just finished. Between 1814 and 1914 the one great political question was the fate of the principles of democracy. That is the central fact about which the whole national life revolved during that pregnant period. The problem was not how shall democracy rule itself, but, is democracy to be allowed to rule itself? One revolution in 1830, another in 1848, and a war with Prussia in 1870, were all necessary to show the royalists that they, with their eyes fixed on the past, with their creeds and shibboleths and mummeries, were quite unequal to the task of constituting a government for a great forward-looking nation.

Even then they had no mind to learn their lesson. The Republican constitution of 1875 was carried by a majority of one. That majority was sufficient, but on the surface it was not convincing. It seemed to leave the question still open for discussion and solution. The significance of that majority of one is easily misunderstood, however. It was a very considerable defeat for the monarchists. The fact is that the National Assembly was a royalist body. Yet it voted for Republican institutions. But the royalists did not accept

their defeat. For thirty years they carried on an insidious warfare against popular government, using every device and taking advantage of every circumstance to embarrass the Republic. They died hard. Before they died they had all but wrecked their country.

The most united, the most consistent and the most influential supporters of the royalist cause were the clergy. It can be readily understood that they were bitterly hostile to the democratic idea. In the struggle that developed between Republicans and Monarchists after 1871, the Church promptly allied itself with the latter. "The Monarchists were the most inept political party that ever wrecked a powerful cause." The Church shared in the disasters that, one after another, involved that party in ruin during the next twenty years. The first blow was the defeat of Macmahon in 1877. The next was the Boulangist fiasco in 1888-9—where the clergy were again on the losing side. Then the *cause célèbre* of the decade, beginning in 1894—the Dreyfus case—alienated great masses of moderate opinion from the Catholic and Conservative party, and threw them into the ever-swelling ranks of the radicals and anti-clericals. In this amazing affair, which impassioned the entire nation, and in which the individual wronged was lost sight of in a titanic struggle on behalf of toleration, freedom and the essential principles of justice, the Clergy were again with the losers.

Thus, in the last quarter of the century, the clericals had manœuvred the Church out of a position of great prestige. In 1875 the Catholics had every card in their hands. "They were in power. They had money and influence; they had the officials, the judges, the army, a great majority in Parliament, the Ministers and the Chief of the State." The anti-clericals were an insignificant minority. When it became plain that the clergy had united with the royalists for the restoration of the monarchy, the anti-clericals declared war. The attack was opened by a demand for educational reforms. Elementary education, then under the direction of the Church, was taken out of its hands. It was made free and compulsory. The schools were secularized. The State, as well, resumed control of University degrees. Finally, all religious orders not definitely authorized by law were expelled from the country.

This anti-clerical spirit, although nourished by the Boulanger movement, died to a very large extent when the wise Leo XIII.

called upon French Catholics to line themselves up with the Republic and give it their full support, since all authority was from God. Had this prudent advice been followed, it is in the highest degree probable that the question of separation would not have arisen to this day. The spirit of hostility to the clergy grew again very rapidly, however, when it was seen that the educational laws were being flagrantly violated, when the clerical attacks upon the State schools grew in violence, and the persecution of school-teachers grew more open. It was fanned into a flame by the Dreyfus case.

The Dreyfus trial laid bare the fact that the majority of the clergy had refused to follow Leo's advice concerning adhesion to the Republic. Their uncompromising hostility caused real political disorder. I do not wish to enter into the details of this passionate, sordid and tragic story. The documents in the case have been more than once printed. Elections were manipulated, officials were corrupted with the money of the faithful, civil war was threatened, the overthrow of the Republic was again and again advocated. The picture of a religious crusade in the twentieth century is scarcely imaginable, but passion begets passion and patriots might be pardoned for resenting a call for the repetition of the horrors of St. Bartholomew's day. Let us think that such appeals would not have received episcopal approbation at a calmer moment. Not all of the clergy were involved in these attacks. It was the religious orders that were especially imprudent in their words and deeds.

The immediate effect of this attitude of the clergy was to unite against them all the parties that on other grounds would have been irreconcilables. Radicals, democrats, socialists, moderate Republicans, all with one voice demanded the disciplining of the refractory clergy. The government called upon all religious orders to obtain authorization or disperse. Some left the country without more ado—the Jesuits and the Benedictines. Then in an unjustifiable and intolerant way, the rest were expelled almost *en masse*.

It was the clergy who had forced the issue. Frenchmen saw themselves confronted by two conceptions of government: the clerical or Roman and the secular. To their minds the latter was the Christian conception, because it recognized that there were certain things that should be rendered to Caesar, and others that should be rendered to God. The moment had come when a decision must be made between these two ideals. The nation had found that

whenever it wished to take a step toward social and political equality the clergy stood across its path. The clergy had found it impossible to keep away from purely political affairs, and, as the Bishop of Rouen said, the intervention of the clergy in political matters had always been fatal to the Church.

Separation seemed the only solution. The old working agreement, the Concordat of 1801, had had its day. A new arrangement was necessary. In the long association of Church and State in France, separation had seemed imminent more than once. It had been contemplated by Philip the Fair as a solution of his difficulties with Boniface VIII. It had actually taken place in 1794. Lamennais had seen in it the only hope for the Church. Lamartine had urged it. It was discussed in 1880. Now men hesitated before the fact. Waldeck-Rousseau was opposed to it. Even Combes refused his consent to its presentation to the Chamber while he was leader of the government. After he had resigned, he proposed it himself.

Finally, separation was rendered inevitable by the action of the Vatican itself. In 1903, the Papal Secretary informed the French ambassador that the Pope was not favorable to the proposed visit of the President of the Republic to the King of Italy. "His Holiness would regard it as an insult as well to the rights of the Holy See as to his august person, and in consequence declines all responsibility for the serious consequences that an event of this kind would have for French influence in foreign lands." This veiled threat against the sovereignty of the French nation could not pass unnoticed. More Catholic kings of France than Henry IV. had bridled at such an attack. President Loubet paid his visit, which was one of pure courtesy, to the King of Italy. The Pope wounded the *amour propre* of the French people by calling upon the governments of Europe to resent the action of the French President. Nothing could save the situation. Diplomatic relations were severed. The Law of Separation was proposed in February, 1905, and was passed in December following. It became effective without disturbances.

The Bill was constructed with great deliberation and after careful investigation of ecclesiastical interests. It became law only after prolonged examination before the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. Every opportunity was given for criticism. No essential interest was neglected. The purpose of the Commission was to

safeguard religion while making it impossible for organized ecclesiasticism to embarrass the State. The State was to be secularized. All religious bodies were put on the same footing. Under the name of "Cultural Associations" (or "Associations for Public Worship"). All religions—Catholic, Protestant, Hebrew, etc.—were given the same standing. Congregations were to be formed by the voluntary motion of persons so inclined. On application to the authorities, these societies received formal recognition as civil bodies. Eventually, such congregations were to be self-supporting, deriving no assistance from the State. In the meantime, pensions (totalling about 25,000,000 francs) were provided for the clergy, toward whom the State had no thought of denying its obligations as under the Concordat. Existing Church buildings became the property of these associations on comparatively trifling conditions. The State is not to be blamed if, profiting by experience, it made impossible the heaping up by wealthy congregations of great reserves which might be used again for other than religious or beneficent ends.

The majority of French Catholics accepted the law quietly. Some of the Bishops set to work to reorganize their dioceses in conformity with the proposed provisions of the Bill, even before the Bill had been placed on the Statute books. They saw that every protection was being furnished for the dignity, the discipline and the material interests of the Church. The bishops met in convention and agreed to comply with the law, while endorsing its *theoretical* condemnation by the Pope. A few disturbances occurred, created by "pious hooligans," but the Administration remained calm and tolerant. The time limit for the formation of associations was extended again and again, and every facility was provided for the making of the adjustments necessary to such a crisis.

Prophecies of evil have not been made true. Schism has not broken out in the Church. To prevent this the law provided that property would be assigned only to those associations that remained in communion with the original church. The State renounced its ancient right of the appointment and even of the nomination of bishops. There remains no impediment to the Pope's authority over the clergy. Membership has not declined. Secularization has not meant a declaration of atheism. The prestige of the episcopate as a civil authority has diminished, but its moral influence will benefit thereby. Gallicanism, the distinguishing feature of the

Church of France, the cause of many quarrels with Rome and heart-burnings on the part of the Pope, exists no more. Ultramontanism has triumphed in the Church—Will this mean a slow death because of the crushing out of the spirit of liberalism?

In so far as one is able to judge, the results of this law have been beneficial to the Church. The intransigent element, following the lead of the Curia, has succeeded in depriving the Church of some of the advantages of the law, but these will correct themselves in time. The Church has not suffered in her active representatives. The self-devotion of the priest has won increasing respect. The austere simplicity of his life and his cheerful perseverance strike the heroic note and disarm criticism. To his side he has attracted many of his harshest critics. The newspapers have dropped their attacks. As he organizes his work among the young men, among laborers, among the women of his cure, he is gaining the respect and confidence of those with whom he engages in closer and closer rivalry. Here, too, the war plays its happy as well as its fateful part. The priest, the pastor and the rabbi are seeing the deeper mysteries of love and forbearance as they strive together in the same great heroism of sacrifice and devotion. These are the best pledges for the future of the religious life of France.

IN MEMORY OF WILLIAM HENRY FRASER (1853-1916).

JOHN SQUAIR, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

Within a few months a considerable group of my old friends have passed away: James Loudon, ex-President of the University of Toronto; Emile Pernet, my predecessor in the chair of French in University College and my old teacher to whom I owe so much; William Oldright, my teacher in Italian; John J. Tilley, my inspector when I was a public school teacher; and W. H. Fraser, fellow-student, fellow-professor and collaborator in authorship. I hope it will not be considered out of place to pause here a moment to say how grateful I am for having had the friendship of these men. They were all kind to me, and I derived much advantage from them. Men sometimes say, "in a world of hate;" I cannot speak thus. In days gone by I have found it a world of kindness much more than of hate. And I will not despair of the future, black as the present may seem.

By the death of Professor Fraser the teaching profession of Ontario has lost one of its most distinguished members, and this Modern Language group one of its most able and faithful workers. It is no exaggeration to say that no one ever gave better service to this Association. It was my good fortune to be closely associated with him from beginning to end, and I know whereof I speak.

The Modern Language Association of Ontario, the original name of this Section, was founded on Dec. 29th, 1886, in the Y.M.C.A. Building of University College. There were twenty-eight persons present on that occasion, who might be called the charter members of the Association, although there was a preliminary meeting, in the preceding August, of eight persons. Professor Fraser was not at the preliminary meeting, but he was one of the twenty-eight charter members, and took an active part in our first real meeting, at which he was made a member of the Executive Council.

The second meeting of the Association was held in the Canadian Institute on December 28th and 29th, 1887, at which Professor Fraser read a paper entitled "The Ear and Eye in Modern Language Teaching" (The Canada Educational Monthly, 1888, pp. 41-47). The object of the paper was, as one might guess from its

title, to emphasize the importance of oral practice in Modern Language classes. At the sixth meeting of the Association, held on April 19th, 20th and 21st, 1892, a paper by Professor Fraser was read, on "Pass French and German in the University of Toronto," in which an outline was given of the history of the University's legislation regarding French and German in the General Course. It will be remembered that a commotion had been aroused by a statute of the Senate of the University, passed on March 13th, 1891, which made Pass Greek equal to Pass French plus Pass German. I have not been able to find Professor Fraser's paper of April 20th, 1892, but an article by him, which appeared in *The Canada Educational Monthly* in the April and May numbers, 1891, contains the same substance, and makes interesting reading even now. In it Professor Fraser's skill as a controversialist is shown at its best. Clear, incisive, satirical, it did something to console us for what we considered the stupid action of the Senate on March 13th, 1891.

In 1893, a federation was effected between the various bodies of teachers in Ontario, and the Modern Language Association, although retaining its first name, became virtually the Modern Language Section of the College and High School Department of the Ontario Educational Association.

At the meeting in this year (1893), Professor Fraser was appointed Secretary-Treasurer of this Association, and remained such for five years. He was the best Secretary the Association has ever had. For promptness, exactness, initiative, attention to all phases of our interests, he could not be excelled. He was unequalled in his skill in getting fees from dilatory members, and the money once obtained, he never allowed predatory attacks to be made on the treasury. Hence our bank balance was constantly growing. He was very successful, also, in encouraging the production of good papers at our annual meetings. He had that prudent kind of audacity which enables men to extort from others what they ought to give, but which they give unwillingly. He was not afraid to ask, and he usually got what he asked for. For instance, he obtained from the Modern Language Association of America their valuable series of publications in exchange for our Proceedings. As Secretary, he naturally became our representative on the Board of Directors of the General Association, and there he became one of the most

valued members on the Printing Committee and elsewhere. I have certain knowledge that he rendered constantly important service. During his Secretaryship, and subsequently, Professor Fraser contributed papers such as "Reform in Modern Language Methods in Germany," in 1894; "The Humour and Satire of the First Rogue Story," in 1900; "Methods of Teaching Modern Languages," his presidential address, in 1901; "The Direct Method in the French Lycée," in 1911. It would be impossible to give any satisfactory analysis of these papers in the time at our disposal. Those interested may find them in the Proceedings and in the numbers of *The Canada Educational Monthly* already cited. It may suffice to say that they show those qualities of honest, radical thinking and clear expression which always characterized him. There was often in them also a quality of satirical humour, which added zest to his utterances. He might sometimes appear dry, but beneath the surface, ready to be revealed, there were always springs of wit.

Professor Fraser was one possessed of rare linguistic ability. He could learn languages rapidly and accurately, and took pleasure in doing so. Hence he could teach well. He knew what the essentials were, and he could present them attractively. In the criticism of literature and the allied arts, such as painting, he had the faculty of seeing quickly into the heart of things. He could find his way readily through the maze of the less important things into the full meaning of the great works of the past.

It may not be out of place for me, who had such intimate relations with Professor Fraser as author, to repeat here a paragraph from an article which I wrote for *The University Monthly* of February, 1917:

"It was as joint authors that Professor Fraser and the writer were most intimately associated. 'The High School French Reader' was our first production. It appeared in 1890. In the following year we brought out 'The High School French Grammar.' These were used in the High Schools of Ontario until they were displaced, in 1900, by 'The High School French Grammar and Reader,' which might be called a combined second edition of the first two, although many new things appeared in it. In 1913, we made a completely new book, called the 'New High School French Grammar,' which, in the High Schools of Ontario, displaced the

book of 1900. It will always be to me a matter for gratitude that I was associated so long and so intimately in the production of these books, as colleague, with a man of such ability. He faced all difficulties with great skill. He shirked nothing. Patient in research, he did not spare himself in getting at the truth. Courageous in innovating, he helped to reform where the world had outgrown the methods of older grammarians."

But he is gone. No more shall we have the benefit of his sensible counsels, nor the consolation of his constant fidelity. And as we mourn for him, let us not forget his bereaved family, to whom he meant so much. As husband and father, he was one of the best of men. If we miss him, wife and children will miss him much more.

CLASSICAL SECTION

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN CLASSICAL SCHOLARSHIP COMPARED.

N. W. DEWITT, PH.D., VICTORIA COLLEGE.

There are two stages in the history of Latin scholarship in Great Britain, before we come down to the present day. In the first stage, Latin was the most practical of studies. Not to be able to read and to speak it was to be a barbarian. The Venerable Bede in England in the eighth century did not learn it for the sake of the discipline, nor did Alfred the Great in the next century; they left the parsing stage with all speed and hastened the work of translation in order that the people among whom they lived and served might be brought within the pale of civilization. In the next stage, we find Latin regarded as the mark of the gentleman. For example, when Roger Ascham, the great Elizabethan schoolmaster, declared that "All men covet to have their children speak Latin," he was hardly thinking of any but the sons of gentlefolk. In the eighteenth century, when classical scholarship was at its lowest ebb in England, though sedulously cultivated in Scotland, members of Parliament were still quoting Horace in public speeches, and false quantities, it is alleged, would provoke a smile on learned faces. The nineteenth century, although it saw a tremendous movement in technical linguistic studies under the scientific impulse of comparative philology, witnessed a marked decline in the esteem in which classical studies were held, for that century was democratic in its social thought, and democracy holds a knowledge of book-keeping higher than literary culture, and the tools of the skilled mechanic higher than the pen of the scholar.

In America, this venerable tradition that a gentleman's education is somehow incomplete without a knowledge of Latin, lay at the bottom of New England culture down to the time of the Civil War. The eloquence of Daniel Webster, the most perfect exponent of that culture, was thoroughly Ciceronian in its cast. He ennobled

his ideas by the use of heavy words and sonorous phrases; he built up long and rolling periods, marshalling his clauses with a skilfulness that comes only from natural gifts, choice reading, and careful practice. His greatest successor, Edward Everett, without whose presence no great occasion was complete during the middle years of the last century, seems to have studied every precept of the ancient rhetoric, but his great oration, delivered at the dedication of the Gettysburg cemetery, in 1863, has almost passed into oblivion, while the faltering monosyllables of Abraham Lincoln, uttered on the same occasion, have become familiar to all people who pretend to possess an intelligent interest in democratic government. The War was the turning-point. The simple, untaught son of a Western pioneer gave a new language to politics. Nowadays it almost seems as if Great Britain were receiving the same lesson from the lips of an untaught Welshman, for the language of Lloyd-George is as different from that of Gladstone, or even of Asquith, the pupil of Jowett of Balliol, as Abraham Lincoln's was different from that of Webster or Everett. Latin is no longer necessary for the sort of gentleman which the modern world holds in highest esteem.

The decline of Ciceronian eloquence in America is rather strangely accompanied by the rise of Latin scholarship of the German type, for it was in the decade just before the war that Americans began to resort to German universities for the study of Latin and Greek. It is true that Edward Everett was at Göttingen for two years before 1819, and George Bancroft, who left the Classics to make a name for himself in the field of history, was also in the same university at about the same time. Such early examples are rare, however. Lane of Harvard went abroad in 1847 and studied at Göttingen, Bonn, Berlin and Heidelberg. Harkness, the first American to graduate at Bonn, took his degree there in 1854. The great Whitney of Yale, of Sanskrit fame, went to Bonn in 1850. Gildersleeve of Johns Hopkins took his doctorate at Göttingen in 1853, and had studied previously at Bonn. After the Civil War, the emigration to Germany assumed such proportions that, to mention names would be needless and tedious. It must be said however, that the foreign degree often gave to its holders an advantage out of all proportion to its value. It was only towards the end of the

century that men came to know that these degrees were often won by little labor, and that European universities were by no means inclined to be so strict with foreign students as with their own countrymen, for whose subsequent career they would in part be held responsible.

Of these Americans who first went abroad it is remarkable how almost all became fascinated with syntactical and grammatical studies, and how exclusively they owe their fame to the publication of grammars. Goodwin, although he was professor of Greek for forty-one years, and worked on a variety of subjects, is known solely by his Greek Grammar and Moods and Tenses of the Greek Verb. Goodwin's Moods and Tenses stimulated J. B. Greenough to work on the Latin Subjunctive and ultimately led to the widely used Allen & Greenough's Latin Grammar, while Greenough's numerous other writings are known only to specialists. George Martin Lane, professor of Latin at Harvard for forty-three years, left as his sole monument a Latin Grammar. I venture to say that none of you have heard of Woolsey of Yale, who edited Greek tragedies, but most of you have heard of his successor, James Hadley, who published a Greek Grammar. Even Gildersleeve is perhaps most widely known as the author of a Latin Grammar, unless in Great Britain, where his Pindar has attracted more notice. It is needless to treat this topic to the point of exhaustion. Yet mention should be made of the "American Journal of Philology," whose forty-odd numbers teem with articles of a syntactical and grammatical character.

In this realm of grammar and syntax the Britisher seems to take but little interest, and I am not sure that he does not feel that a man puts himself outside the pale by displaying enthusiasm for technical linguistic studies. Sandys, in his History of Classical Scholarship, gives short shrift to grammarians. H. J. Roby is barely mentioned; Kennedy of Cambridge is lauded for many accomplishments, but not as the author of the Public School Latin Grammar. Goodwin's works are freely used and praised in England, but no ambitious author has attempted to replace them. Englishmen are quite content, it seems, to allow others to do the drudgery of scholarship. Even in the domain of Latin prose composition they have depended upon Krebb's *Antibarbarus* as a

standard of reference for Latin idioms and usage. Manuals of syntax like Arnold's, Thompson's and Sidgwick's are of course abundant, but these are not scientific in their method. American grammars, on the other hand, like Allen & Greenough, Hale & Buck, are avowedly based upon studies of comparative philology and comparative syntax. The Britisher's views are of course shared by many scholars on this side of the water, who assert, very truly, that grammar and syntax are pseudo-sciences, but this class, although growing in numbers and influence, perhaps, has been a minority from the beginning.

Over against this American absorption in technical linguistic studies must be placed the persistent interest of Englishmen in translation. One will readily recall Chapman's Homer, which inspired the poet Keats; Dryden's Virgil, which delighted at least one generation of Englishmen, and is still deemed worthy of reprinting; and, above all, Pope's Iliad, which reached a circulation unsurpassed in the annals of the book trade not only down to its own time, but even long afterwards; although totally unlike the original in its manner, it actually became a school book and an English classic. In our own day, where comparisons are more just, we may mention Jowett's Plato, which resembles Plato little more than Pope's Iliad resembles Homer, as the author well knew; his own personality went into it, and he declared explicitly that he was more concerned to write good English than to render faithfully every little detail of the original. Popular as his translation became, it did not hinder the circulation of Davis and Vaughn, which peeps from the bookshelf of many a philosopher who does not understand Greek. To mention other translators would be tedious, but I might generalize by saying that whenever a new style becomes popular in English it seems worth while to render some ancient author in the same; it was this that called forth Conington's Virgil in the ballad metre of Sir Walter Scott, and the Iliad and Odyssey in the archaic English of Lang, Leaf, and Myers, and Butcher and Lang, respectively. Against these we have nothing to oppose in America unless the Odyssey of George Herbert Palmer, and he is not a classicist but a professor of philosophy at Harvard.

Translation appeals to the English scholar in yet another way, and from a point of view that it is useful for every classical man

to thoroughly understand, namely, as a clincher to the commentary. The great Moritz Haupt of Berlin, who was a dominating figure in Germany in the middle part of the last century, uttered the famous dictum that "Translation is the death of the understanding," and this was held to be vitally true by Henry Nettleship, who was the second to hold the professorship of Latin at Oxford. But Nettleship was temperamentally allied to the Germans, and had studied under Haupt. Conington, who, to be sure, was not a scholar of the very highest rank, issued a rendering of Virgil in prose, which can be understood only as a commentary on the text. The same explanation must be urged for Jebb's Sophocles and Munro's Lucretius. It was felt by such as these that the commentary will often fall short of being convincing unless a rendering in English is added to re-enforce the interpretation of the passage in its whole context. I imagine, also, that there is the pleasure of discovery and the delight of sport in trying to find the English phrase, which, no matter how unlike it seems to the original, somehow evokes its real spirit and feeling and displays its content. Englishmen have less interest in linguistics than in style and thought, and seem to find an unending delight in shaping the happy phrase. That the same will some day be true of Americans I can well believe, but they have been warped from their natural bent by intellectual cleverness and the seductive mirage of "research," which leads one astray in literary pursuits.

The English devotion to translation as a pastime, as a branch of scholarship, as an art, and almost as a profession, calls sharply to our notice that the study of the classics in the old land has never been divorced from the composite literary life of the country, nor even from politics. Butcher's Translation of the Poetics of Aristotle and the essays bound up with it in the same volume have become as familiar to the literary public as any manual of modern criticism. The Irishman, James Henry, whose great edition of Virgil, is marked by profound learning, discerning taste and penetrating sympathy, and lacks only conciseness, was by profession a physician. George Grote, whose Greek History and studies of Plato and Aristotle found their way to many an unprofessional library, was a banker and a member of Parliament. Speaking of Parliament, it may well be borne in mind that Sir R. C. Jebb represented the

University of Cambridge for fourteen years. Sir Alexander Grant, known to us chiefly by his edition of Aristotle's *Ethics*, held executive positions in India for eight years before becoming principal of the University of Edinburgh, and, to the last, was more of an administrator than a scholar. Benjamin Jowett was not only known equally as a controversialist and as a scholar, but he trained up an astonishing number of men for public life, such as Asquith, Lord Curzon and Sir Edward Grey. Not to burden you with more proof and demonstration, I may assert that men who were trained chiefly in the Classics have at all times been exerting significant influence in literature, in the Church, in offices of administration, and in parliamentary life.

In America, the fruits of classical scholarship were realized only so long as New England and Virginia were closed communities. With the dissipation of population consequent upon the settlement of the West, and the dilution of social, political, and religious feeling consequent upon the influx of myriads of families from the humbler classes of Europe, we recognize the emergence of that phenomenon known as the "self-made man," and the growth of a positive prejudice against college education. Even the example of an extraordinary man like Lincoln, which could be of little use to ordinary people, might be held up as an excuse for belittling the educated man. What was especially unfortunate for the interests of the Classics, the new life that came into them through the enthusiasms of the early nineteenth century rendered them even less useful than the painstaking labor of reading Caesar, Cicero, Virgil and Horace, which constituted the traditional programme, and at the same time less comprehensible to the man in the street. The thirst for the unknown, so indispensable to the scientist; the ambition to make a name for oneself by original investigation; the fancy that the study of language is really scientific—these impulses started the "research" movement in this field, where there is least scope for it.

For the origins of the research movement we must go back to the first half of the nineteenth century, when the discovery of the true relationship of Sanskrit to Latin and Greek sent a wave of enthusiasm through the republic of letters. It happened that New England society in those days was full of vigor and was reaching out for the culture of Europe in every field of learning. Even England frankly admitted her shortcomings in pure scholarship in those

days, and appointed a professor of Latin for the first time in history. The famous Max Müller was invited to England by the East India Company to edit the Rigveda, where his brilliant lectures on the Science of Language led to his appointment of Professor of Comparative Philology at Oxford, in 1868. America, in the same age, boasted of a scholar whose fame has proved to be more lasting, in the person of the brilliant William Dwight Whitney, of Yale, who had been, like Müller, a pupil of Franz Bopp, in Berlin; like Müller, he was a good lecturer, and his "Life and Growth of Language" was translated into many languages. With these two men the two countries, answering to the same impulses, started even; but in Great Britain, whether by reason of wisdom, or temperament, or conservatism, Max Müller seems to have had few followers; in America the devotees of classical research have been legion, though few deserve to be called disciples of the incomparable Whitney. As I said, research is apt to be competitive, and the race for distinction by this route seems to have made an irresistible appeal to the ambitious American. The result has often proven to be a scholarship as penetrating as a needle and of no larger dimensions.

This does not mean that subjects for dissertations cannot be found. Professor Shorey of Chicago used to tell us that so long as a doctoral dissertation could be written on The Hiccough of Aristophanes in the Symposium of Plato, graduate students need not fear that they would have nothing to write about.

Wise and experienced teachers are always able and willing to steer an earnest and industrious man into profitable fields. I believe the best work will be done in connection with the great authors themselves. Virgil has been strangely neglected in the last fifty years, especially in England and America. Latin of the Empire is rarely read and is highly profitable. Roman religion is but little understood by the average classicist, and few are aware of what light it brings to history and literature. A vast amount of valuable study could be done along the line of semantics, which would fall quite within the range of a well-equipped student of good taste, and the results would be well worth printing. Poetic diction is but imperfectly understood in its relationship to vulgar Latin, to investigate which would be a real boon. Prose rhythm

is well enough understood but too rarely studied, and one might well make a reading of Cicero's writings to determine the limits of its employment.

This impetus given to classical studies in the United States by comparative philology has lasted right down to the present day, but I believe it to be at an end. Every fashion, every fad, every mis-conceived ideal, must some day reach a pitch of absurdity which will put an end to it. This is just as true of educational fashions as it is of women's hats, sleeves, or skirts, which periodically reach an extreme, when it is suddenly realized that the thing is funny and no longer tolerable. When a misguided professor attempts to introduce the science of comparative philology into a public school Latin grammar it is just as absurd as a women trying to board a street car in a hoop-skirt, and the psychology of the two attempts is not greatly different. I once heard an American student demand of a professor the explanation of the subjunctive in the sentence:

"*Vitulus pefit antequam cornua habeat.*"

Now the professor understood thoroughly the higher criticism of Latin Grammar, and, addressing himself to the ceiling, with a twinkle in his eye, he delivered himself of the following: "The calf butts before he has horns; *habeat* is the anticipatory subjunctive; the calf anticipates that he will have horns, or, if the student is reluctant to admit to allow this degree of foreknowledge to the calf. . . ." A saving sense of humor is infinitely useful in this field.

To return to research and the Classics, the scope of it in this field is extremely limited. One may read Livy from beginning to end for the sake of the ablative absolutes, but the results are hardly worth having. One soon digs a hole for himself that sinks him every day farther from the light and air. The idea that language is governed by laws is a chimera. The scientific study of language, so-called, is at best an analogy. A law of nature is never abrogated for a moment. Hydrogen and oxygen will always combine in the same way under constant conditions, and the scientist can control the conditions. Two vowels in the same word will combine in quite different ways into two dialects, for example in Doric and Ionic. A law of language is just a generalization from assembled facts. Nothing can be predicted with certainty. In syntax, the variations of dialects starting from a common base is yet more incalculable.

no *a priori* reasoning is of use. There are puzzles that can never be solved. Did the subjunctive originally express will or futurity? Were the subjunctive and optative originally clearly separated between the expression of will and wish? Is the historical present the survival of a one-tense stage in the development of language, or is it a prehistoric stylistic invention? The men who strive to settle such problems are likely to segregate themselves from useful life, and they will not agree with one another. The amount of technical knowledge requisite for such recondite research goes far beyond the needs of literary interpretation, which is the chief function of learning for the vast majority of students. Research leads us into domains hardly worth exploring. Let us leave it for the few.

Moreover, the Germans have already about finished the drudgery of investigation for classical scholars. American universities, looking forward to a participation in this labor, have been amassing vast libraries. During the last few years scarcely a German professor has passed to the other world but his collection of books and magazines has been secured for some American institution. The University of Illinois, for example, is spending \$50,000 per year on books, and they don't wait to write letters or to select what they want; they cable for whole libraries. Many Western universities are buying on a scale that is almost comparable to this. English universities, of course, have been maintaining their libraries with equal efficiency and at less expense for a long time, but with a different aim. They are not planning to rival the Germans; they are quite content to take advantage of the fruits of the toil of others, and to digest their learning. Many an English publication, like Warde-Fowler's *Religious Experience of the Roman People*, for example, is salted and peppered with references to German lexicons, dissertations, and magazines, but the conclusions are strictly his own, no matter whether they agree with his authorities or not. He depends upon them for collections of data; he is instructed by their discussions, but he is not trying to rival them. He is seeking to bring useful truth to light. Many Americans, on the other hand, have had it in their minds to rival the Germans, which is impossible at this late day. The handicap is too great, even if the race were worth winning.

I ought to say, for fear you may imagine that I ascribe all

virtue to the British scholars and none to the Americans, that the former have valued greatly the approval of the Germans, and have long been proud of the high position won by men like Bentley and Porson in the 18th century in the estimation of their continental colleagues. The desire of this approval has had its humorous side at times, as in the case of a certain Britisher of the name of Gray, who prided himself on his skill in emendation and long hankered for continental notice, which at length arrived in a way he had not anticipated, for a German mentioned one of his suggestions as a "rotten" emendation, *putide Grains*. I might mention also in the last century that the admiration of Mommsen amounted almost to adulation in England. To disagree with Mommsen was regarded by some as little short of heterodoxy. So extreme was this that the editors of an English Encyclopædia rejected an article of an eminent Cambridge professor because it dissented from Mommsen's views on the subject of the Etruscans. Now it happens that Mommsen's chapter on the Etruscans is perhaps the weakest in his whole history; he thought that they came into Italy through the Alps from the north, a theory that contradicts both tradition and evidence, and is held by no one to-day. The English professor was right, and I believe his article was ultimately printed, but the treatment dealt out to him is a signal proof of the deference paid to the German historian.

Speaking of Mommsen reminds me of a characteristic trait that is common to both Britain and America, namely, the lack of co-operation. Mommsen employed a vast number of young doctors of philosophy to assemble material for him, which he collated and digested with prodigious skill, enabling himself to produce voluminous works on history, law, chronology, numismatics, philology, and epigraphy. These men, if they did not die of overwork, as several of them did, were rewarded with recommendations to academic positions. The machine that he built up through this kind of patronage, which he commanded through the friendship of the Kaiser, not only lifted German historical scholarship to a level unknown in the world before, but completely overawed the English universities, whose scholars were still working as individuals. His model of organization was adopted in other fields in order to turn out works like the Pauly-Wissova Encyclopædia and Roscher's Lexicon of Greek and Roman Mythology, which constitute vast

reservoirs of material for students of ancient biography, antiquities, geography, religion, and mythology, and every thing else under the ancient sun. The very greatest achievement of organized scholarship, however, was the collection and publication of the inscriptions of the Roman Empire, arranged by provinces, in separate volumes, all edited from the stones by an army of experts trained by Mommsen himself and working under his direction and the pay of the Prussian Academy. These enormous volumes now amount to a pile five feet high, and are far from complete. You all have heard, no doubt, of the *Thesaurus Linguae Latinae* undertaken sixteen years ago by the co-operation of five German universities and scores of scholars. Over against these specimens of Prussian efficiency, place the attempt of Henry Nettleship to compile a Latin Lexicon by his own unaided efforts, having failed to secure co-operation. He was compelled to give it up, as might have been expected, after finishing enough material to fill a volume. Smith's Dictionaries of Greek and Roman Biography and Antiquities and Greek and Roman Mythology were of course products of organized literary labor, but are not to be compared with the similar German works in exhaustiveness; perhaps they are more useful on that account to the majority of scholars. The great Greek Lexicon of Liddel owed very little to the assistance of the Americans, Drisler, Goodwin, and Gildersleeve, and if there be any truth in an Oxford epigram, was largely the work of one of the authors whose name appears on the title page. So far as I know, the fat volumes of Professor Frazer on Pausanias' Description of Greece, and the nine volumes on religion and anthropology are the single-handed production of the author. In America, with all the German-trained professors, there has been no attempt at organized production. Charlton T. Lewis, of Latin Dictionary fame, was a busy and eminent lawyer of New York city, who gave his part of his mornings to the dictionary. Goodwin of Harvard was highly regarded as a man and a teacher, but he built up no school of followers. Gildersleeve of Johns Hopkins is said to have utilized the toil of one of his assistants, but the majority of the graduates of his seminar were cast upon the world to work out their own salvation. I believe this to be a happy omen for American scholarship, and an indication that, in the course of time, it will veer in the direction of English models, paying greater attention to matters of taste, literary criti-

cism, and what we call the humanities. They will surely realize that the drudgery of scholarship has largely been done in our field and that we may remain content for others to have done it.

It would be a great omission to overlook a paradoxical situation that has arisen in the domain of Archaeology. An Oxford student can reach Italy in twenty-four hours, but strange to say, the Americans, who are separated from the Mediterranean by a quite costly journey of ten or twelve days, have devoted themselves to the study of classical archaeology with much greater enthusiasm. When I was in Rome in 1903-4, there were some twenty students at the American School of Classical Studies, and none that I knew of at the English School, although the latter offered instruction of the most excellent kind. In the American School in Athens there was also a marked disparity, and I was told that such was usually the case in both places. I should estimate that, since the foundation of the American School in Athens in 1881, and the School in Rome in 1895, that almost 500 students have been enrolled, of whom the majority have been teachers. It is no wonder that the average of archaeological knowledge in the United States should be amazingly high, and that American High School teachers should scorn to be behind the times in their knowledge of excavations. One American professor went so far as to assert that he was more desirous that his pupils should be Romans than that they should be Latinists. This was the inevitable extreme. Englishmen have been more moderate in their enthusiasm and are to be classified in Greece and Italy rather as intelligent travellers than archaeologists. Nevertheless there are more eminent archaeologists in England than in America, which reverses the paradox.

Along with the American interest in Archaeology, with its foreign schools, its Bulletins, and its Journal, goes the enthusiasm for the study of classical antiquities, such as dress, ornaments, domestic arrangements, and private life; classical plays have been frequently reproduced at Harvard, which has an open-air Greek theatre, also at Barnard College in New York city, and even in high schools throughout the West; but especially at Berkeley, California, where the climate justifies peculiarly the use of the magnificent open-air theatre. When I was in St. Louis on the staff of the Washington University, I witnessed the recital in the original Greek of long passages from the *Odyssey*, which was a regular feature of com-

mencement week. It is no uncommon thing for high school pupils to have a small periodical printed in Latin, and a Rochester high school is organized as a Roman Republic, being divided into tribes and classes for voting purposes. The stereopticon is universal in schools and colleges alike, and is enthusiastically lauded as a means of stimulating interest. One of my former students, who was subjected to this sort of instruction *ad nauseam* by a college professor, told me that he usually went to sleep, finding it an irresistible sedative. Being usually accompanied by a plentiful lack of ventilation, I can well believe it. Concerning the other stimuli, mentioned above, which are also coming into use in Great Britain, it must be remembered that they don't create any real interest in the language and literature, that they do induce sentiment, and that the frequent use of them is an entertaining waste of time, and never should receive academic credit.

In this connection one ought to deal with the apparent contradiction between the flagging of interest in classical scholarship in the United States and the enormous increase in the number of students pursuing Latin studies in the high schools. It is an undeniable fact that the number of graduate students in the universities is very small, so small indeed that professors drawing large salaries are sometimes quite without classes, and the quality of students is often poor. Greek has practically disappeared from the public high schools, and the graduate student, in consequence, is two or three years behind in this branch. In the high schools, on the other hand, the enrolments in Latin are enormous and the pupils attain great proficiency in the oral reading of Latin and great glibness in oral translation. Of these pupils, however, only a few, and these almost exclusively girls, pursue the study in college, unless it is required. Most of them matriculate at some small college, where the course of study is often in the hands of some well-meaning enthusiast, who does not know how to write Latin, much less Greek, and, in general, prefers the sauce to the pudding. Ancient history is totally neglected, and philosophy is taboo, departmental jealousy often preventing professors of Greek or Latin from touching either. In the large state universities the public opinion of the student body is often so overwhelmingly in favor of science and against Latin and Greek, that even one who has liked the Classics in high school is frightened away. Of conditions in the Old Land I am unable to

speak, through lack of knowledge, but I judge that the provincial universities, with scientific preferences, are gaining ground every year, and I judge from the fads being urged in the secondary schools that the old order is changing.

Putting what I have said together, by way of *résumé*, it may be recognized that similar situations have ensued upon somewhat different courses of action. In both countries the friends of the Classics feel that the time is critical. In the month of June a conference of representatives from all parts of the United States and Canada will be held in Princeton to discuss what means shall be taken for encouraging the study of the Classics. In England the Classical Association has issued a bulletin setting forth the claims of classical studies, a quiet reply to the pamphlet issued by the scientists on the Neglect of Scientific Studies. In both countries there is a nervous searching for new and more timely methods, such as the *viva voce* system of Mr. W. H. D. Rouse, who has been invited to make demonstrations in the summer school of Columbia University, New York. In both countries, though more markedly in America, is conspicuous the use of stimuli, such as the acting of plays, the study of antiquities, and archaeology in general.

In the near future there is bound to be a revaluation of values, which will bring the two peoples nearer together. The statement of Edward Everett, uttered in 1819, that America has everything to learn from Germany and nothing to learn from England, which was admitted to be largely true at that time, has long been absurd; but from now on it will be universally recognized to be absurd. The two nations, including scholars, will understand one another better. Oxford has lately announced its intention to confer the degree of Ph.D., which surely implies some abatement of the contempt for doctoral dissertation, and America, in its turn, may very well reciprocate by thinking more kindly of humanitarian studies.

Here in Canada, we are provincial both to London and New York, both to Yale and Harvard, and to Oxford and Cambridge. Thanks to Tory politics, and to the forty-ninth parallel, our economic growth and our thought have been alike retarded. A large margin of choice has been left to us. The course of action we pursue will be far-reaching in its consequences. What will happen in the remote future will depend upon what we do in the near future.

Many things are being urged upon us. The claims of a shallow and wealth-producing efficiency will be powerfully pressed. The education of the hand and eye, as against the mind and the judgment, will be persistently and persuasively recommended, and these are things that the man in the street can readily understand. The virtues of democracy as the insurance of happiness and peace are being forced upon our attention through the issues of the world war, and it may be forgotten or overlooked that the insurance of democracy is the possession by the state of a wise and thoughtful few who have learned to interpret the ideals of life to the multitude. The levelling tendencies of social liberty are apt to extend themselves to amusements, to literature, to education, and to thought and conduct. We shall sorely need the sobering effects of hard study, long mental discipline, serious thinking, and real consecration to usefulness, a need that Classical studies are known to have supplied in the past, and may supply in part in the future, if a sufficient number of people are determined that it shall be so.

MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION

MAGIC PROPERTIES OF NUMBERS.

A. H. D. Ross, M.A., M.F.

Ancient counting consisted in the enumeration of things actually seen, and it was only by slow degrees that the human mind grasped the idea of number being a property independent of the physical characteristics of the objects counted. Naturally, the first differentiation would be between the individual and those about him—between one and many—between a single unit and a group of such units. Then would come the mental process of combining one and one to form two, which may be regarded as *the first calculation ever made*. Anthropologists tell us that some primitive tribes overcome the difficulty of combining one and one by having two men stand apart as a concrete representation of the result; and, however absurd it may sound to us, to speak of the combination of one and one to form two as a “calculation” it should be remembered that once upon a time this conception involved real calculation.

In very early times it is quite possible that people did not count beyond five, and that a considerable number of objects were counted by multiples of five. In Homer’s *Odyssey*, Neptune’s seal keeper is represented as counting his sea-calves by fives, and even in the days of Aristotle, philosophers speculated regarding the universality of the methods of counting by fives or tens. The five fingers on each hand naturally led to the method of grouping fives, and to primitive minds the abstract idea of the number five was frequently expressed by means of the word for hand. In Sanskrit, for example, the word *pancha* is used to represent both the hand and five; whilst amongst the ancient Persians the word for hand was *pendji*, which means an outstretched hand. Even in Greek the word for five (*pente*) originally meant hand. Amongst the Eskimo tribes the word for five means “hand-full,” amongst the Mexican Aztecs “hand-depicted,” and amongst the Zulus “hand-finish.” Among the

Tamanocs of the Orinoco River, in Venezuela, the word for five means "whole hand," six "one on the other hand," and so on up to ten, which is signified by "both hands."

The method of grouping pairs leads to what is known as the "Binary Scale of Notation," and by fives to the "Quinary Scale," but it is worthy of note that most of the ancient civilizations were familiar with our present system of grouping by tens and powers of ten—doubtless because of the ten fingers on the hands. Amongst such widely separated nations as the Latins, Chinese, Finns, and Malays (having no linguistic relationships), we find the base of ten is used. Amongst the Egyptians, Babylonians, Chaldeans, Hindoos, and Chinese there was also a tendency to group by twelves and twenties, and to subdivide unit weights and measures by two, four, six, eight, twelve, twenty and sixty. Relics of this custom are met with in such expressions as "Twelve units make a dozen, twelve dozen make a gross, twelve gross make a great gross;" "Twelve lines make an inch, twelve inches make a foot;" "Twenty units make a gross;" "Sixty seconds make a minute, sixty minutes make an hour, twelve hours make a day," etc., etc.

SYSTEMS OF NOTATION.

The use of visible signs to represent numbers is not only older than writing, but is even older than the development of numerical language itself. Such symbols have two great advantages over gesture symbols because they are both permanent and capable of indefinite extension. Amongst the early Egyptians the first number symbols were perpendicular strokes, and the decimal system of grouping early made its appearance. Ten was represented by a kind of horseshoe, a hundred by a short spiral, a thousand by an urn, ten thousand by a pointing finger, one hundred thousand by a burbot, and a million by a man in the attitude of astonishment. Besides the hieroglyphics found on obelisks and the walls of temples, there was also a system of hieratic writing which was probably a degenerate form of the hieroglyphics evolved through long use and attempts at rapid writing. Still another form of writing numbers was the cuneiform system of the Babylonians, in which vertical arrowheads represented the units, horizontal arrows pointing to the left represented tens, and horizontal arrows pointing to the right represented hundreds. Amongst the early Greeks and Romans a

system of vertical strokes was used to represent the numbers as high as five and ten, and it is interesting to note that this same method of "tallying" logs in a lumber camp is used by the scaler.

In ancient Mexico the first number pictures used were combinations of circles representing the numbers from one to nineteen, and relics of this ancient method of numerical picture writing are to be found on dice and dominoes. Still another method of representing numbers was to use letters of the alphabet to represent certain numbers. This method was used by the Hebrews, Syrians, Greeks and Romans, but was rather cumbersome for purposes of calculation. The origin of our present system of notation is rather obscure, but appears to have originated amongst the Hindoo priests of India. From India these symbols found their way to Arabia; from there to Spain or Barbary; and thence to western Europe about 1,000 A.D.; but it was not until 1202 A.D. that Leonardo, of Pisa, explained the superiority of the Hindu-Arabic notation over the Roman notation. The introduction of this powerful system freed arithmetic from the reign of the abacus, and also paved the way for our well-known decimal system of representing the value of fractions.

MYSTIC PROPERTIES OF NUMBERS.

Somewhere about 530 B.C., Pythagoras of Samos founded a school in Southern Italy, and appears to have been acquainted with quite a few of the properties of positive integral numbers. By using dots to represent numbers and arranging them in symmetrical patterns he readily discovered what are known as "triangular," "square," and "oblong" numbers, and assigned mystical meanings to many of them. For example, one represented a point, two a line, three a surface, and four a solid. As $1+2+3+4=10$ he regarded ten as the "Perfect Number," because it symbolized the summation of the point, line, surface, and solid. Again, by representing the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 by dots arranged in the form of a triangle we get the "Holy Tetractys," by which the Pythagoreans swore to preserve the secrets of their order. If 5, 6, 7, 8, etc., dots are successively added to the tetractys, it will be found that the total number of dots, from the vertex downward, is 1, 3, 6, 10, 15, 21, 28, 36, 45, etc.—which are known as the "Triangular" numbers. Pythagoras also noticed that the odd numbers may be arranged along the adjacent sides of a square, and that (beginning with one)

the sum of any number of odd numbers is a square number. Because of this tendency of the Greeks to regard arithmetic from a geometric standpoint, later writers gave the name *radix* to the side of a square, and each successive addition of odd numbers to the existing square was known as a *gnomon*—a term still retained in Euclid's second book of plane geometry. The Pythagoreans also arranged the even numbers in the form of rectangles, or "oblongs." *the sum of any number of odd numbers is a square number.*

For this reason the numbers 2, 6, 12, 20, etc., were known as "Oblong Numbers," and it is readily seen that they are exactly twice the corresponding triangular numbers. The neo-Pythagoreans greatly extended the mystical significance of numbers, and even asserted that numbers are the very substance of real things. Amongst every ancient people, and more especially in India, Chaldæa, Egypt and China, we find importance attached to numbers in connection with religious worship, and it is altogether likely that the conception of the sanctity and symbolic dignity of numbers reflected from the pages of the Old Testament passed over to the Israelites from their heathen neighbors.

MAGIC SQUARES.

Another good example of the magic powers attributed to numbers and geometrical figures is to be found in the veneration with which "Magic Squares" were regarded by primitive thinkers. These squares were constructed in India before the Christian era, and in some parts of India are still engraved on metal or stone and worn as a talisman; whilst in central Europe they formed part of a wide-spread mysticism during the Middle Ages.

Simple Magic Squares consist of numbers arranged in horizontal *rows* and vertical *columns*, so that the sum of the numbers in each row and column is always the same. In the accompanying diagram it will be noticed that the first nine numbers are arranged

3	5	7
8	1	6
4	9	2

Simple Magic Square

8	1	6
3	5	7
4	9	2

Compound Magic Square

so that the sum of the numbers in each row and column is 15. In this square the numbers 8, 1, 6 and 5, 1, 9 are known as *diameters*; whilst 4, 1, 7 and 3, 1, 2 are known as *diagonals*. The sum of the

numbers on one diagonal is 12 and on the other 6, instead of 15, but an arrangement which gives the same total for every row, column, and diagonal gives what is known as a *Compound Magic Square*. In the case of the nine digits 5 will always occupy the middle cell, and there are 8 possible arrangements for the remaining digits, one of which is given here.

About 1500 A.D., Albrecht Dürer wrote on Magic Squares, and about 1550 Michael Stifel and Adam Reise contributed some additional information, but the development of the theory is mainly due to the French mathematicians who lived between 1600 and 1700. In 1816 Mollweide collected the scattered rules in his *De quadratis magicis*, which is distinguished by its scientific treatment and simplicity of expression.

PERFECT NUMBERS.

A *Perfect Number* is one equal to the sum of its "aliquot parts." For example $1 + 2 + 3 = 6$; hence 6 is a perfect number. The perfect numbers discovered by Euclid are included in the formula $2^{n-1} (2^n - 1)$; provided that $2^n - 1$ is a prime number. From this formula it is evident that the theory of perfect numbers depends directly upon Mersenne's numbers. Mersenne's theorem is that $2^n - 1$ is a prime number when $n = 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 13, 17, 19, 31, 61, 127$ and 257; the corresponding perfect numbers being 1, 6, 28, 496, etc.

FRACTIONS

Primitive fractions were concrete things—aliquot parts of standard measures, weights or coins—but soon there arose the idea of a fraction as the *ratio* of one number to another. In this connection it is interesting to notice that the Greek word for ratio was *logos*, which explains why fractional arithmetic was known as *logistic arithmetic* for a period of almost two thousand years. Amongst the Egyptians fractions were frequently expressed as the sum of other fractions with unity as a numerator. Thus, $\frac{2}{9}$ was represented by $\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{18}$; $\frac{2}{9}$ by $\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{14} + \frac{1}{32}$; etc. The Romans generally expressed their fractions with the common denominator 12 or multiples of 12, and had special names for such fractions as $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{16}$, etc.

To the Hindoos there occurred the idea of a common denominator which can be expressed as a power of ten—thus enabling us to perform operations with fractions just as easily as the corresponding operations can be performed with whole numbers.

From the positive whole numbers of the earliest times to the fractional numbers of the Egyptians and Greeks there was a slow and intermittent progress towards the idea of ratios. Newton defined *number as the abstract ratio of one quantity to another of the same kind*. The idea of an abstract ratio being involved it is therefore necessary that the *unit of measurement* should be either stated or understood before it is possible to represent any given quantity by means of a number. For example, the ratio of a dozen eggs to one egg is represented by the number twelve; of a day to a week by one-seventh; of the diagonal of a square to its edge by $\sqrt{2}$; of the area of a circle to that of the square enclosing it by $\frac{\pi}{4}$; etc.

INCOMMEASURABLES.

Pythagoras is said to have known that the ratio of the diagonal of a square to its side cannot be expressed exactly. In time, this idea of "*no ratio*" gave rise to the word *ir-rational*. Irrational numbers, or *incommensurable numbers*, may therefore be defined as *numbers whose exact values cannot be represented by fractions*. To the Pythagoreans they were numbers of deep mystery—symbols of the unspeakable. About 410 B.C. Theodorus of Cyrene proved the irrationality of the square roots of 3, 5, 7, 8, 10 and 17. About 270 B.C. Euclid (Book X, 22-117) discussed every possible variety of lines which can be represented by $\sqrt{\sqrt{a \pm b}}$, where a and b represent commensurable lines, and makes 27 species of such lines—which is striking evidence of his great genius. In 1544 A.D. Michael Stifel devoted the first two books of his *Arithmetica Integra* to a discussion of surds and incommensurables and adopted the symbol $\sqrt{}$ which is a corruption of the initial letter of the Latin word *radix*, which means a root.

Gauss (1777-1855) was the first to prove that *every rational integral equation in one unknown possesses a root*, and gave three distinct proofs of it, a problem which had baffled the attempts of all mathematicians before his time. This root, when real, is usually incommensurable. From the time of Euclid to very recent times the Theory of Incommensurables remained untouched. Instead of approaching the subject from the geometrical point of view Weirstrass, Dedekind, Cantor and Hobson have built up a

purely arithmetical theory of surds which fortifies the basis of mathematical analysis in a most marvellous manner.

NEGATIVE NUMBERS.

In the process of subtracting one number from another it was soon observed that the *minuend* is sometimes greater than the *subtrahend*; in which case the operation was deemed "impossible" and the result was described as a "fictitious" number until the fourth century, A.D., when the Hindoo priests likened it to a case of credits and debits in which the latter exceeded the former. Thus it appears that the negative sign is simply a symbol for the *result* of an operation which cannot be carried out with actually existing groups of things.

To Descartes (1596-1650) occurred the brilliant idea of representing algebraic equations geometrically—the positive values of the quantities involved representing measurements in agreed directions from straight lines at right angles to each other and the negative values measurements in the *opposite* directions. *This linking up of algebra and geometry was one of the greatest mathematical discoveries ever made and forced upon mathematicians the conviction that negative integers must be regarded as numbers.* Quantity, as such, is neither positive nor negative, but *quantitative relationships* may be either positive or negative; that is to say, numbers may be either positive or negative.

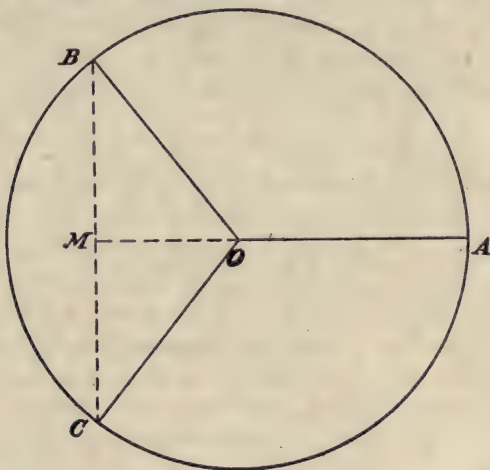
IMAGINARY NUMBERS.

Not until 1685 was a satisfactory explanation given as to the meaning of $+\sqrt{-1}$, and $-\sqrt{-1}$. In that year John Wallis, Savilian Professor of Geometry at Oxford, suggested a graphic interpretation. Just as $+1$ means a unit distance measured to the *right* of the origin and -1 a unit distance to the *left*, so Wallis took $+\sqrt{-1}$ to mean a unit distance measured *upwards*, and $-\sqrt{-1}$ to mean a unit distance measured *downwards* from it. From this it is evident that *the symbol $\sqrt{-1}$ involves the idea of a line being rotated until it is at right angles to its original position.* The choice of the name "imaginary" for the symbol $\sqrt{-1}$ is unfortunate, because it is imaginary only in the same sense as fractions, irrational numbers and negative numbers are imaginary. Just as $\frac{3}{4}$, $\sqrt{2}$ and -7 are symbols devised for the purpose of

representing the *results* of operations, so $\sqrt{-1}$ is a symbol representing a definite operation. One after another, the fractional, irrational, negative and imaginary numbers have gained an entrance into the number system of algebra. No one of them was accepted until its correspondence to some actually existing thing had been shown. Fractional and "irrational" numbers originated in relations among actually existing things, and naturally made good their position at an earlier date than negative and "imaginary" numbers which grew immediately out of equations and for which a "real" interpretation had to be sought.

COMPLEX NUMBERS.

In solving the equation $x^3 - 1 = 0$, we find that the three values of x which satisfy the equation are $+1$; $-\frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{-\frac{3}{4}}$; $-\frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{-\frac{3}{4}}$. The geometric interpretation of these values of x can be easily understood from a diagram of a circle in which three radii OA , OB , OC make angles of 120 degrees with one another. The radius



OA is clearly the $+1$ value of x , in which we move in a straight line from O to A . To get from O to B we can first go from O to M ($-\frac{1}{2}$) and then *up* to B a distance equal to $\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$, and to get from O to C we can first go from O to M ($-\frac{1}{2}$) and then *down* to C a distance equal to $\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$. Thus it appears that the "real" part $-\frac{1}{2}$ means a movement along the x -axis and the "imaginary" part $\sqrt{-\frac{3}{4}}$ means a movement of $\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$ parallel to the y -axis. For this

reason $-\frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{-\frac{3}{2}}$ and $-\frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{-\frac{3}{2}}$ are called "complex" numbers with "real" and "imaginary" parts.

Complex numbers were introduced into trigonometry by De Moivre whose well known theorem is of such great service in mathematical analysis, but not until the time of Gauss was their nature well understood. Practically all our modern theories of complex numbers are based upon Gauss's researches which have shown that *it is possible to replace every geometrical problem by a corresponding analytical one involving only numbers and their relations*. In other words, every geometrical construction has its counterpart in the determination of a number, or a finite set of numbers, which shall satisfy certain prescribed relations relatively to a given set of numbers. For example, Gauss showed that *if n is a prime number and $n-1 = p^a \cdot q^b \cdot r^c \dots$, then it is always possible to make the solution of $x^n - 1 = 0$ depend upon that of equations of lower degree*. From this it appears that the solution of $x^{17} - 1 = 0$ depends upon the solution of four equations of the second degree, and consequently that it is possible to inscribe in a circle a regular polygon of 17 sides by Euclidean methods—a problem deemed impossible before the time of Gauss.

TRANSCENDENTAL NUMBERS.

Transcendental numbers are of such a nature that they cannot be the roots of algebraic equations in which the coefficients are rational numbers. Trigonometric functions, inverse trigonometric functions, logarithms, e , and many other functions appearing only in the higher analysis do not satisfy any equation of the form $ax^n + bx^{n-1} + cx^{n-2} + \dots = 0$, and, consequently the values of these functions cannot be calculated by a finite number of additions, subtractions, multiplications and divisions, but depend upon an infinity of such operations, indicated by means of a power series—as, for example,

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{\underline{3}} + \frac{x^5}{\underline{5}} - \frac{x^7}{\underline{7}} + \text{etc.}$$

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{\underline{2}} + \frac{x^3}{\underline{3}} + \frac{x^4}{\underline{4}} + \text{etc.}$$

In 1840 Liouville showed that neither e nor e^2 can be the root of an integral quadratic equation with rational coefficients, and in 1873 Charles Hermite proved the same thing by means of con-

tinued fractions. In this same year Cantor gave a more concise proof of the existence of transcendental numbers; which include not only e and π , but almost certainly, the Eulerian constant 0.5772156649. In June 1882 Lindemann, starting from the relationship $e^{\pi i} = -1$, showed that π is a transcendental number. In 1885 Weirstrass simplified the proof given by Lindemann, and further demonstrations have been given since by Hilbert, Klein, Hurwitz, Gordan, Stieltjis, Mertens and Vahlen.

SOME REMARKABLE RELATIONSHIPS.

Before closing this paper I should like to call your attention to some remarkable relationships existing between the circular measure of an angle, its cosine, its sine, the base of Naperian logarithms, and the square root of -1 which is usually indicated by the letter i .

Instead of regarding trigonometry as a mere appendage of astronomy and geometry, Euler treated it as a branch of mathematical analysis and showed that the exponential and trigonometric functions are connected by the relation $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$, which plays so great a role in the modern theory of functions. Next to De Moivre's theorem, this relationship is one of the most important of modern analysis. In fact it furnishes a very neat proof of De Moivre's theorem itself; for by finding the n th power of each side of the equation, when we have $(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = (e^{i\theta})^n = e^{in\theta} = \cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta$, which is De Moivre's theorem. Other interesting relationships can be developed from the formulae $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$, and $e^{-i\theta} = \cos \theta - i \sin \theta$ by substituting for θ the values $\frac{\pi}{2}$, π , $\frac{3\pi}{2}$ and 2π ; when we get $e^{\frac{1}{2}\pi i} = i$; $e^{\pi i} = -1$; $e^{\frac{3}{2}\pi i} = -i$; and $e^{2\pi i} = +1$. The last of these equations may be written in the form $e^{2\pi i} - 1 = 0$, and is especially noteworthy because it involves the most notable set of five numbers in the whole range of mathematics.

In a hurried and sketchy way I have traced the development of the idea of number from the primitive counting of concrete objects to the abstract idea of integral or whole numbers, methods of grouping and reckoning, systems of notation, fractions, surds, negative numbers, imaginary numbers, complex numbers, transcendental numbers, and a few of the many remarkable ways in which certain numbers are related to one another, and feel that I

cannot do better than close by quoting the words of Gauss, admittedly the great master of the science of number, who says "The higher arithmetic presents us with an inexhaustible store of interesting truths,—of truths, too, which are not isolated, but stand in a close internal connection, and, between which, as our knowledge increases, we are continually discovering new and sometimes wholly unexpected ties. A great part of its theories derive an additional charm from the peculiarity that important propositions, with the impress of simplicity upon them, are often discovered by induction, and yet are of so profound a character that we cannot find their demonstration till after many vain attempts, and it is often by tedious and artificial process, while the simpler methods have long remained concealed".

ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION

ECONOMIC FACTORS IN CANADIAN HISTORY.

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The purpose of this brief paper is to make a plea for greater attention in our schools and colleges to the economic and social side of our history. A knowledge of the way the men and women of the past lived and worked is essential if we are to have a real and vital understanding of how Canada began and how it has grown to be what it is.

The writer of history faces a dilemma. He cannot, of course, record every minute fact, every detailed happening in every community in the period of which he writes. He must pick and choose. Too often his choice has been restricted to two lines. In the first place, the historian has usually concluded that certain sides of human life are the only ones important and dignified enough to warrant recording, particularly the political and military sides of history. In the second place, he has concluded that since he cannot treat of all the usual and common things, he should therefore deal only with the unusual, with the spectacular and dramatic crises in a people's life. Now, so far as they go, these methods are wholly defensible. Political and military history deal with two great fields of human endeavor, fields in which men acted in masses and in close relation with the state and all its fortunes. The unusual, again, must be emphasized. There are single lives, single events, which have turned the whole course of human history, and these the chronicler of the past must make known to us. But the one thing he should do and the other he should not leave undone. The writer and the teacher of history must not only picture for us the genius and the hero, but he should also give us a glimpse of the way the ordinary men and women of the time lived in their daily round, give us an understanding of the background of the scene on which the great crises were staged. If this is not done, the knowledge of the past we acquire will be a superficial travesty of history.

Place should be found, for example, for some discussion of the various industries our forefathers followed, and of the bearing of their work on their character and on the nation's growth. At the threshold of our history the fur trade and the fishery are usually

given notice, it is true, though perhaps we might stress still more the importance of the beaver and the cod in shaping the destinies of nations, and might emphasize also the connection between the fur-trading activities of the early French settlers and their exploring achievements, their Indian alliances, their immediate strength and their final weakness in war. But why should we not also follow the farmer, picture his battle with the forest, note the change in crops, methods, machinery, as markets and training and time changed? The introduction of the reaper is surely as important as the Double Shuffle, and the coming of the cheese factory to Ontario or the development of Red Fife or Marquis wheat as noteworthy as the question who was premier in 1862. So with lumbering, with manufacturing.

Or it might be the social side of past life that would be emphasized. Most of our histories give a passing glance at the customs and manners of pioneer life, but we might well bide a bit longer. What manner of houses our great-grandfathers in Upper Canada lived in, what furniture they used, what clothes they wore, how fashions changed or did not change, what sort of schools and school teachers and school books fell to their lot, what chance they had of church service, what bees or festivities broke the monotony of backwoods life, are all matters that will give interest and reality to the child's study of the past, and matters on which the traditions of the older folks in the community can often throw much light.

The methods and policies of land settlement require more than passing attention. As a rule it is only when such questions get into politics that they are given any heed; the Clergy Reserves have been given ten times more attention than all the other questions of land policy in our history. And yet this question and the allied question of immigration were of immense importance both to the individual settler and to the nation, and if time permits, it is well to refer to the medley of land policies we have tried, the feudal system in the seigniories, free grants for services or for political pull, sale at fixed price, disposal through land companies, the free homestead policy, and all the other variations. It is of interest also, and thanks to such accessible discussions as those of Rogers or Casselman, easy, to trace the settlement of the province and of one's own neighborhood especially, supplementing the general study by some old letters or journals of the settlement days, noting the place of origin

of the settlers, the reasons for their coming, the manner of their introduction to the new country, and any other special incidents.

Or again, might not more attention be given to the question of transportation and its bearing on the economic structure and the political development of the country? The lack of roads in early times meant isolation, meant self-contained and self-sufficient households, primitive but resourceful ways of working. The building of roads, corduroy, clay, gravel, macadam, or plank is an event of first importance in the history of any section. The part the canals played in the forties in surmounting the barriers which had kept these backwoods provinces from trade and contact with the outside world might well be given something of the attention it received in their own day. But it is especially to the connection between the railways and the history of Canada that I should like to recall your attention. On the political side, the nation-making side, the railway is the most important factor in our history. Without the railway Canada would not exist to-day. Without it, it would not have been possible to stake out this half continent from ocean to ocean, to weld it together, under one rule, to bring about the constant intercourse, the exchange of ideas and of people and of goods essential to making the country one. Without the Intercolonial, the union between the Maritime Provinces and the Canadas could not have been achieved; without the Canadian Pacific, the West could not have been held and developed and made one with the East. So too on the economic side. We might well note how the railways opened markets, stirred up speculation, booms, panics, how it made possible an elaborate division of labor among different communities and different men, or how it levelled prices and levelled manners throughout wide areas.

These are only indications of the wealth of interest which awaits the writer and the teacher who seek to make live for the present generation not merely the spectacular sides, the headline phases, of our forefathers, but the every-day forces and factors that shaped and colored their way of life. The immigrant and the pioneer, the lumberman and the fisherman and the railway builder, must be recognized more and more as figures which demand our full and grateful attention.

NATIONALITY AND THE WAR.

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Among the conditions which rendered the war possible was the fact that neither the boundaries of the various States in Europe nor their internal constitutions harmonized with the aspirations of their constituent races or secured to them just and equal treatment. Among the conditions without which no peace can be durable is the removal of existing causes of international unrest, mainly by establishing political boundaries resting on the principle of nationality or the consent of the governed. This war is bringing within the range of practical politics the fuller realization of the principle that States should, as far as possible, be organized on a basis of nationality. If politically severed races are reunited and subject races are given autonomy, this course will be just and desirable in the interests of these races and will be advantageous to civilization and the peace of the world. Recognition of nationality enriches civilization with the varied contributions which each race makes to the higher life of the world, and is the best safeguard against war. Almost every outbreak of war in the last hundred years has been due to unsatisfied aspirations for national unity or for freedom. The present war is a colossal illustration of this. The political creed of the Allies is a creed of diversity, "the right to live"; the German creed is a creed of uniformity enforced by "a will to power."

Nationality at its highest implies community of blood, of language with its distinctive ideas, and of tradition with the memory of achievements and sufferings in the past. There must also be a consciousness of these elements and a willingness to preserve them even at the risk of death. A nationality is always striving to become a nation. A nation may be defined as a nationality which has acquired self-government, a nationality plus a state. For the organization of a state, nationality is the strongest and most natural basis. In parts of Russia and Germany and all of Austria-Hungary and the Balkan Peninsula, the political boundaries disregard the lines of demarcation between nationalities. Austria-Hungary is the only great State in Europe which has no national basis. To it the triumph of the national principle after the war would mean dismemberment. But without such dismemberment and without the

creation of a new Southern Slav State—a Greater Serbia—there can be no lasting peace in Europe and no destruction of the power of Prussian militarism. A peace based on the final readjustment of the political boundaries of Europe, on the just and sound basis of nationality, would involve: the restoration by Germany of all invaded territory, the expulsion of the Turk from Europe, the option given to Alsace to rejoin France if she wished it, the reunion of Danish Schleswig into Denmark, the reunion of all the Poles, the return of the Trentino and the western part of the Istrian peninsula to Italy, the autonomy of Bohemia, and the creation of a Greater Roumania and a Greater Serbia. The Magyars would retain the Central Hungarian plain and Austrian Germans might either enter the German Empire or form a new confederation with Southern Germans. Such a reconstruction of the map of Europe would enrich civilization, would ensure peace, and would not crush the legitimate aspirations of any race. This principle of variety in unity underlies the whole structure of the British Empire, and is one chief source of its strength.

SOME ASPECTS OF THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

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The work of the teacher of English Composition is to train pupils to express their ideas in clear, intelligible sentences so put together as to please the ear, avoid offence and satisfy the requirements of good taste. It is hardly fair to require that this subject should deal to any great extent with the ideas to be expressed; it should rather aid in their correct expression. We assume that the pupil has some thoughts in his mind. Our work is to enable him to arrange them in the best order and express them in the best way.

Our problem with the beginner is to get him to say something; and so long as what he says is fairly grammatical and free from slang, I would not criticize severely. He may probably delight in "soft, white, fleecy clouds," or in the "dark, gloomy, threatening" variety; his fields are always "carpeted with lovely green grass"; his sunshine is "beautiful, bright, golden"; his wars are "bloody and fearful"; his storms "rage violently"; his "exquisitely beautiful" views "can be seen"; his soldiers never die—they "make the supreme sacrifice." But be it remembered that it is something for him to be able to write at all. It is something for him to have increased his vocabulary, even by adjectives, and his clear, terse Saxon speech of the future will be far more effective when it is deliberately chosen as better than something else which he knows, than it would be if it were used of necessity because he knows no other.

What about the place of the written plan? It is of course a valuable exercise. All really well written work has some plan, whether written or not. But it should not be too clearly visible in a finished essay, just as scaffolding is not to be left up after a building is completed. Are we not all familiar with this kind of work? "*Introduction*. I am going to write in this Composition something about coal, that most useful article." "*Body*" follows with something more or less readable until we reach "Paragraph 3. In the last paragraph we showed the uses of coal; let us now consider how it was formed in the earth." The climax is reached when we find "*Conclusion*. From the foregoing remarks it will be seen that coal is very useful, and that it is indeed indispensable."

When such essays appear, my own practice is to forbid the use of the terms Introduction, Body, Conclusion, and to show that these words mean nothing more nor less than Beginning, Middle and End. The "Body" is probably all that is required, if it is begun and ended as it should be. Let us teach the young writer to begin at once, to avoid circumlocution, and, when he has finished—to stop. Alas! even great writers are not free from unnecessary Conclusions. What about the last lines of *Enoch Arden*?

Our pupil's general knowledge is all the time increasing, and his work in Composition helps his other studies, and is helped by them. It is now customary to disparage Grammar and almost to deny its right to a place in the High School programme; but is not its neglect a direct cause of faulty punctuation and slovenly style? We find participial phrases mistaken for sentences, and other supposed sentences which begin well, but end—up in the air. Some years ago, when visiting an Art School, I was surprised to see the students busy drawing bones, skulls, skeletons. Surely you do not make pictures of those? "If we do not study anatomy," I was told, "our figure drawing will probably be incorrect. We need to know where the bones are, and how they are shaped; then we cover them with flesh and with drapery." Does not the study of English Grammar bear somewhat the same relation to Composition that anatomy does to figure painting? We do not want dry bones in the finished product, but the bones must be there or the figure will be out of drawing.

Other studies are felt to give valuable subject matter for Compositions. Now the chief difficulty of the young writer is to find material for writing. If asked to give an oral composition, he is dumb, and when he sits down to write he has nothing to say. Yet if he is not giving a Composition his tongue wags fast enough, and he has little difficulty in finding plenty to write in answer to questions on various subjects or in a letter, when he wishes to tell of something which interests him. This difficulty of finding material or suggesting subjects appears to be a trouble to some teachers, if one may judge by the numerous lists of "suggested subjects for Compositions" appearing from time to time. Is not the chief cause of our difficulty that we do not apprehend the limitations of the pupil's knowledge and experience? Hence we conceive it a part of our duty as teachers of Composition to set him at work to dis-

cover information about a subject of which he has no previous knowledge, before letting him begin to write. I would not be misunderstood about this. By all means let us teach the pupil how to gather information by consulting books and by his own observation. I merely say that this work is not Composition in the strict sense of the word. Learning how to consult books and libraries is most useful training, and should no doubt be taken in hand by every teacher wherever possible. But what of the small places where books are few and libraries inaccessible, where the pupil must simply make the best use of what he has? I submit that this acquiring information on a variety of subjects, however interesting and instructive, is hardly a necessary part of the work of teaching Composition in the limited time at our disposal in a High School, and we have enough to do in teaching the use of the material within the pupil's reach, even within the limits of his own knowledge, without sending him to read encyclopædias.

Again, Composition may be successfully connected with History by historical and biographical essays. The danger is lest the two subjects should be confused, and credit given to the Composition for historical accuracy rather than for literary excellence. You are studying the war, and the pupil gives you something like "Malice in Kulturland!" As a Composition it is worth 100, as History ——?

The subject most naturally connected with Composition is certainly English Literature. Is it not best perhaps to try to correlate the work in Composition with the study of Prose Literature? Examine carefully in class the work of a good writer and base the Composition exercises on the discoveries made. Thus we may deduce rules as required. For teaching paragraph structure some of Washington Irving's Sketches are invaluable, and instead of consulting Macaulay for examples of faulty English we may even succeed in leading our young people to see what is admirable in our best writers, with a view to improving their own style.

The principles upon which this may be done are clearly laid down in "Composition from Models," though the book, as a whole, is perhaps rather difficult except for senior classes. I should like to call attention, however, to the valuable suggestions given there for Composition writing on a description of a Storm. If such work as this could be extended we might have a useful text-book on Composition. Here the question arises: Is such a text-book to be

desired? There seems to be general dissatisfaction with the present book, and a fairly general opinion that it is useful only for Lower School work, chiefly for punctuation rules, capitals, letter and business forms, and other matters of a mechanical nature.

Whether we use a text-book or not, there seems no question that the great way of learning to do is by doing. The best way of learning to write English is by writing. Hence it is desirable that as much writing as possible should be done consistently with correctness. There can hardly be much profit from writing essays unless the essays are read and the mistakes corrected. Moreover, the laborious reading and correcting by the teacher has no value unless we can secure the pupil's understanding and correction of the mistakes pointed out. Not only should a pupil be required to correct mistakes, but his corrections should be examined by the teacher and he should be made to do them properly. This applies of course chiefly to home essays, which he must learn to write carefully. He will gather his material, arrange it, prepare his plan, write his rough draft, correct it, make his fair copy and bring in his work, presumably done as well as he can do it. How often?

Now the chief reason for the unpopularity of Composition with teachers is that essay reading makes overwhelming demands upon one's time out of school. Would it not be greatly to the advantage of the pupil if he were required to write a home essay every week or at least every two weeks? But if such essays have to be read and marked, some rearrangement of the teacher's work is necessary. One of our Toronto teachers stated that she had made a solemn resolution not to work at Essay Reading more than two hours a day out of school. Another said: "We teachers of English should be permitted to retire at twelve o'clock noon with our Composition books." There was a time when teachers who ventured to protest at the requirements made of them were told, "You should have considered that when you chose to teach English." I remember a time when one teacher was obliged to read 120 home essays every week and to teach nine lessons every day. A kindly High School Inspector came to the rescue and informed the Principal that no teacher should have more than two classes with thirty pupils in each, and that a home essay should not be required oftener than once a fortnight. This divided the teacher's work by four, and the Inspector went on to say that even then, Composition being the most exacting

subject in the High School programme, special allowance should be made in the Time Table by allotting vacant periods to these teachers. "Oh, yes, study periods," quoth the Principal. "I mean vacant periods, not study periods," persisted the Inspector.

In our own school the plan has been maintained, for the past ten years or so, of giving to each teacher of Composition three periods with a class, and as many vacant periods during the week. This keeps the work from being too heavy, and renders essay reading possible. The plan is respectfully commended to the attention of Principals and other authorities. It is desirable that there should also be more opportunity than there is now, or than seems possible, for personal conference between teacher and pupil, for although some errors, chiefly those which are of general occurrence, may profitably be discussed with the class, yet most pupils need personal advice and assistance from an instructor. Five or ten minutes' explanation or friendly talk would often clear up many a difficulty; but it is difficult to get time for this. I suppose we could all use much more time in teaching Composition to our present classes; the question is how to make the best use of what we have.

The pupil also writes a number of Class Essays. It is well that he should learn to write rapidly under stress, and it is also advisable that some work should be done under the direct supervision of the teacher. Thus it is often found well to have a single paragraph constructed in class, that the nature of paragraph structure may be learned. A topic may be given, or a topic sentence, and a paragraph required. Sometimes, especially with beginners, a whole essay may be worked out piecemeal in class in the course of a few lessons, and then the whole be required as a home essay.

The value of Abstracts is real. The writing of them is found to be a most useful means of correcting the tendency to "copy" which affords us much trouble. Very often this copying comes not from any dishonest motive, but from ignorance and incapacity. We send a pupil to certain books for information. He gets the information in an Encyclopædia, for instance, and writes it down, giving us the article as it appears in the book consulted. But he should express it in his own words. He doesn't know how; he has never been taught how. Let us accustom him then to writing abstracts in class work. A few of these read aloud in class will be a most useful correction for this form of work, and a quite sufficient one. This

is perhaps the only necessary correction for any class work. Some of us find it useful to have special books for class essays, and have them in the school in custody of the teacher, who may glance over them at any time to see their general character.

The remaining work done in class is the Oral Composition. Its value is now generally recognized in developing in pupils the power of expressing their thoughts clearly and pleasantly. Its purpose is not to produce great orators. The average High School pupil will not be a great orator, but he may learn to express himself properly when he has to speak, to enunciate distinctly, clearly, pleasantly; to assume a correct attitude of body, to hold up his head, look people in the face, keep his hands out of his pockets and his feet still.

Kindly criticism will generally be valued as helpful, and pupils begin early to feel the benefit of it. A very few years after we began to teach Oral Composition, our Cadet Instructor told me that he had seen its usefulness. "At our Cadet banquets, the boys have something to say—nothing very much, perhaps, but they have ceased to look sheepish when asked to speak, and they do say something."

In the days of long ago, when the curriculum was less crowded than it is now, and the regular time for each lesson was nominally at least one hour, there was time for the careful teacher to insist upon correct form for every class answer, and often to require oral answers of considerable length. The shortening of the lesson period made it impossible to require these answers, taking up five minutes or so to give, and some of us noticed a resulting loss in power of expression. One inquired where that matter should now receive attention, and was told, "In the Composition Class." I began by asking pupils to tell me stories, then historical anecdotes, to explain how something is made or done, then to debate.

Of course Oral Composition is subject to much the same rules as written Composition. It is even more necessary to avoid circumlocution at the beginning, and when the end comes, to stop; but it soon becomes necessary to distinguish Oral Composition from recitation of a written Composition. I found it well to abolish the use of notes and to refuse to accept memorized work. It may be true that even the best public speakers do memorize what they have first written, but they do not stop and hesitate if they happen to forget, then turn round and say, "I forget what comes next." We have all

seen what sometimes happens when a Chairman suddenly calls upon Mr. Blank to "say a few words." If the latter is really not expecting what is coming, we say, "Poor Mr. Blank!" In how many cases we are obliged to transfer our commiseration to Mr. Blank's hearers! Now it is for just such emergencies that pupils may be prepared by *unprepared* Oral Compositions. Occasionally, not very often, I introduce what we call a "continued story." Some pupil is called upon to tell us a story. He stops in the middle of a sentence, naming somebody else who must finish the sentence and continue the story. The fact that all this is looked upon as a game and a huge joke does not lessen its value. "It certainly teaches you to think quickly while you are on your feet," was a remark made by one of our former pupils in speaking of these exercises some years later. Impromptu speeches, short as you please, but upon some subject not made known to the pupil till he is facing the class, have something of the same effect. The subjects for these should be commonplace objects, and will suggest themselves very quickly—Skating, Gardening, Country Life, Pencils, etc.

No doubt much that has been said is open to question and to much variety of opinion. May I venture to suggest four topics, among others, as calling for discussion:

1. The text-book.
 2. Making the best use of our time for reading essays.
 3. Personal conference.
 4. Impromptu oral work.
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COMMERCIAL SECTION

THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

T. W. OATES, LONDON, ONT.

To the Members of the Commercial Section.—I wish to thank you for the honor you conferred upon me by electing me as your President for the past year. It affords me much pleasure to extend to you a most hearty welcome to this our annual meeting of this Association.

It is a pleasure to welcome and offer greetings to the older members who have worked in the past for the welfare of the Association. And to those who are with us for the first time I offer a welcome, and extend the hope that you may enjoy yourselves so much this time that you will become permanently interested and regular members.

In the past I am afraid that many of us have shown ourselves impractical business people, from the fact that we have not taken advantage of organization, which is the fundamental principle of successful business. So this year we have tried to prepare a programme suitable for all, one containing something of interest to each one, no matter what his particular line may be.

At this point allow me to thank all who so kindly consented to help us. I have no doubt you will appreciate the good things they have in store for you.

In these days of commercial and economic revolution, it seems of vital importance that we who strive to prepare the pillars and supports of the commercial community should be interested in what the future has in store for us, or more especially what we have in store for the future. Therefore, I wish to draw your attention for a few minutes to the following topics:

- (a) Present defects in our System.
- (b) Changes which might help the Curriculum.
- (c) The Future Commercial Teacher.

You will agree with me that the Commercial Department does

not receive due recognition. It is a side-line seldom pushed forward. The average Principal to-day thinks more of his Matriculation and Normal Entrance results than those of the Commercial Department. He is always ready to provide libraries, maps, models, or apparatus for his English and History, Art, or Science departments. They must be up-to-date—but in how many schools in this Province can you find complete Commercial equipment? In seventy-five per cent. of our schools you cannot find even suitable commercial desks. Why? Because the Commercial, up to the present, has not had the sympathy of a large number of Principals or other teachers. In their classic-loving natures there is nothing of the Commercial. It is an established fact that the average teacher is a poor business man. He has no time for such mundane affairs. However, there is a change in some quarters. Some at least are beginning to see the error of their ways.

This apathy is to be regretted when the need of vocational and commercial education is greater than ever, and becoming more so every year. The High School Curriculum of to-day is a colossal failure for eighty per cent. of our population.

Statistics tell us that over ninety per cent. of our people at the age of sixty-five are dependent on friends, relatives or charity. If you were to choose any hundred young men of twenty-one years, and then notice the same hundred as they advance for the next forty-four years, you would find the following strange history. Thirty-six would die before reaching sixty-five, one would be rich; four would be comfortably well-off; five more would be earning a decent living, and fifty-four would be dependent on others.

This will apply to any one hundred young men, so we may take it as the index of our economic life. Two-thirds of our children never enter High Schools. They go out into life equipped with either a complete or partial Public School Education. Their average wage increases about five per cent. between twenty-one and thirty-two years of age. And what of those who leave our High Schools after a full or partial course? We find the same condition applies to them. And yet our educators go on teaching Latin, Greek or Higher Mathematics when the demand is for an education that will help to earn a living. Our present High School curriculum is planned for the colleges, and 95 per cent. of our High School students never go to college, but go out into life equipped with a

smattering of subjects that should be and are very soon forgotten. But in the game of life, the survival of the fittest, they are severely handicapped. Should we not shape the education to suit the youth of our country, not try to fit the youth to the educational system?

There are three avenues of escape from these conditions, or at least three means of alleviation of the difficulty.

First—Standardize the Commercial Diploma Examinations, and make them a Departmental Examination. This might arouse the interest of Principals and School Boards.

Second—Open Commercial High Schools in every city or town. Give there a complete course in Commerce and Finance, one that will fit a pupil, not to be an office drudge, but for the position “higher up.” For I believe that, as at present conducted, the Commercial Department is not an unqualified success.

Third—Cut out some of the “frills” from our present High School curriculum and substitute therefor a course in business training, or at least make this course optional even for Normal Entrance, or Junior Matriculation. At present this course is suggested for the preparation of future Commercial Specialists. The Universities are also recognizing this difficulty by offering courses in Finance.

Now, let us turn to the present Commercial Curriculum. It would be splendid if all boys and girls were similarly constituted, if the commercial needs of all localities were identical. Here, again, it is a case of attempting to shape the pupil to the curriculum, not the curriculum to the need of the pupil. Some of our Provincial Educators have said that uniformity was the curse of our present educational system. We give the same education to all; all are compelled to use the same texts, the same time-table, etc. There is no room for diversity or initiative.

Investigation has shown:

First—That training for boys and girls should be different in content and emphasis.

Second—That a girl needs chiefly specific training in some one line of work. She needs a full High School course for its general educational value and for maturity. Immaturity puts her at a disadvantage.

Third—That a boy needs chiefly general education, putting special emphasis on writing, figuring and spelling, general informa-

tion and the development of certain qualities and standards. A boy's training looks forward to clerical work and business administration; so also should his education be shaped with this end in view. Clerical positions for boys cover a variety of work and cannot be definitely anticipated, and so cannot be specifically trained for. But certain fundamental needs are common to all boys' training, and, for those who cannot remain at school, should be pressed into less than a four years' course. Immaturity in a boy is not a great disadvantage. Most of the specialized training for boys should be given at Night Continuation Classes. Boys, as a rule, begin work younger than girls, and are expected to show their calibre in junior positions. Their line of promotion is from one line of business to another, and their advancement depends largely on adaptability and fundamental qualities more than on specific training. The majority of men and boys are clerks or bookkeepers; few are stenographers or machine operators. The wideness of their opportunities makes a definite preliminary training impossible.

Fourth—That girls are expected to enter business with specialized training and to become more proficient in their chosen lines. They are not expected to follow any line of promotion from one line of business to another. The majority of women workers are stenographers or machine operators. Very few are in administrative positions.

Therefore, it would appear that the best course for boys is the Bookkeeping Course, and for girls the Stenography Course.

The more efficient the stenographer is before leaving the school the better, and no pains should be spared along dictation and transcription lines.

For the bookkeeper, accuracy and neatness are the all-important requirements. Much of the bookkeeping in actual business consists of making entries of one kind only, or of checking and verifying. The complete understanding of debit and credit, posting and trial balance is the maximum practical need of the younger worker.

Penmanship demands compactness, legibility, neatness and ease in execution.

The chief demand of business in Arithmetic is for the fundamental operations, especially to calculate and verify results mentally.

This brings me to my last topic, the Commercial Teacher.

The Educational Department requires a degree of Bachelor of Arts for a Commercial Specialist's Certificate. This means that the Commercial field equals the other teaching fields. The Commercial teachers in High Schools and Collegiate Institutes are drawing salaries equal to those in any other department. This condition is bound to bring in many of the best men in the profession who are now teaching some other line, or of the best of the new-comers who have not done so hitherto on account of the salary handicap.

Our Commercial teachers must have initiative and resourcefulness. We have to change our plans and aims so frequently in order to meet new conditions if we wish to keep abreast with the times and the progressive business man. We must keep abreast with the business man not only in business but in social and public functions as well.

We must have our pupils feel the reality of the things they are doing. We must be wide-awake, courageous, and consistent. We can do so by believing in our work, by making ourselves thorough in all the various lines of our work, by teaching with such force and spirit that our pupils catch our enthusiasm, and by promoting in every way the evolution of the present system to the approximately perfect Commercial Course.

The future of Commercial education in this Province is largely in our hands. We can only meet these needs by being business men and women. We are on the brink of a great commercial revival or revolution. That means a great demand for workers and a need of a suitable education for them. If I have given you any food for thought in my remarks this morning, I shall be very glad. I thank you for your kind attention, and hope that all our deliberations may be of great benefit to all, and that you will go home feeling that this has been a very profitable meeting.

METHODS IN SENIOR SHORTHAND.

WM. BAIRD, HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, TORONTO.

There never was a time in the history of Shorthand when the good stenographer was more in demand than at the present time. The business man, as competition has become more keen, has become more exacting as to what he requires of his stenographer. As a result, the stenographer who passed muster a number of years ago would be utterly incapable of filling the same place to-day. This is, probably, not so true of the rate of writing as it is of accuracy and rate of transcription. It is, therefore, incumbent on us as teachers to meet this demand.

As my subject is "Methods in Senior Shorthand," I have presupposed that the students have covered the theory, and have in mind the acquiring of speed. Let us stop here and ask ourselves what is the purpose of this speed practice. We answer, To write at a high speed forms that represent the spoken words, and from such forms to be able to reproduce, without change or distortion, the exact words spoken. Young speed writers are very prone to think that the transcript is unimportant. I therefore repeat that speed in writing, combined with legibility, is the great desideratum of the shorthand writer, and, of the two, legibility is of primary importance. It is, therefore, essential that we proceed slowly, always keeping before speed-students that accuracy of outline comes first, and speed second.

How, then, shall we attain speed with accuracy? The first requisite is a thorough mastery of the principles. It will be necessary to review and then review again and again. Give no chance to forget the rules. Question continually on outlines and rules that they follow. Never give pupils a chance to think that they are through with the theory when they begin speed work. In this review work teachers will find "Practice Letters for Beginners in Shorthand," by D. J. George, very helpful. And for an exhaustive review you can get no better book than "Pitman's Shorthand Writing Exercises and Examination Tests."

These reviews will be made much more effective by giving a short examination on each section covered. A test of twenty words will be found of sufficient length to embrace almost every principle and rule. Allow twenty marks as a full paper, and deduct two

marks for each wrong outline and one for position or vowel wrong. Fifteen or twenty minutes should be allowed for a test of this length.

Put plenty of time on initial and final hooks, halving-principle, and prefixes and suffixes. Aim to introduce new words each day. Give hard words occasionally—words that could be written in a number of different ways and still be according to rule. Have them look them up in the dictionary to get the correct form. Encourage the dictionary habit, for it is a good one. Pay particular attention to words that have peculiar outlines, like ancestor, disastrously, etc. More ground can be covered, too, by taking a word and its derivatives together, as intend, intended, intending, intention, etc.

Along with this review work, get the students interested in reading printed shorthand, and you can find no better or more suitable book than Dickens' "Christmas Carol." Take about a page a day and have students write it out and read from their own notes. This may be assigned as home-work. This should be varied by occasionally dictating the page in the class work.

Here we make also a connection with the typewriting work. A short letter is written on the board in shorthand. This the students copy into a special letter book. This is preserved and is afterwards typewritten. The student is asked to copy this letter twice into his home-work. It is then dictated three or four times in the class-work next day. All this home-work is collected each day, and the careless students checked up.

Through all this practice insist on accurate outlines. Compare often with printed shorthand, and let nothing short of equalling the text-book forms be satisfactory. Again I say, take time. Do not rush the speed. Dictate these letters, that the students have practised, at sixty words per minute until they can make text-book outlines. When students realize that accurate forms can be made at even a speed of 120 words per minute, your greatest difficulty is overcome. You will keep up the interest by having students read from one another's notes and write in one another's notebook. The good writers are delighted to show what they can do, and the poor profit by the example set them.

If you watch these speed aspirants as they write, you will notice that they run, walk, and stand still. There may be several reasons

for this hesitation. First, inability to accurately hear the words spoken. This may be the fault of the dictator, but is more likely caused through lack of concentration by the writer. This acuteness of hearing can be cultivated and greatly improved by careful training.

Second, lack of familiarity with the spoken word. There is no occupation in which a wide general knowledge is more necessary than in stenography. Teachers can assist students by dictating letters and articles on a broad range of subjects. But even then you can cover only a few of the many lines of business. I advise students when they go to a position in a mercantile house, to secure the catalogue of goods, and go through it, writing the outlines for all unfamiliar words, and noting carefully the spelling. The teacher of English can help, too, by directing the supplementary reading and by encouraging the use of the dictionary; in fact, by teaching English in all its branches—Grammar, Spelling, Punctuation, and Capitalization.

The third cause of hesitation is inability to quickly form the outlines in the mind. This *mental* hesitation is the chief stumbling-block in the path of the speed aspirant. If the hesitation is on grammalogues or contractions, there is only one thing to do. Give the students plenty of exercise in them and keep them at them until they know them. If on other words, I would suggest the writing of proper names, as from a telephone or city directory, or words from a spelling-book. Get the students to think the shorthand outlines as they read the newspaper, as they read the signs in the street car, the advertisements on the billboards, the names on the store windows, etc. To make a success of it, you must live in it by day and dream on it at night. This is the only means of eliminating mental hesitation, and hesitation is the thief of time. It is certainly true of speed writing that "He who hesitates is lost." At a speed of 120 words per minute, two words per second have to be written; so that if a writer hesitates for only one second on an outline, four words will have to be written in the next second to keep in the race—the rate of the fastest writers.

Fourth, lack of manual skill. There is only one way to gain this—by writing the outlines over and over again, until the hand is accustomed to form them instantly. Here you will find that an outline that is difficult to one is easy to another. Have the students

criticize their own work. Have them pick out the poorly-formed outlines and write them over and over until they can be formed quickly and accurately. More errors are attributable to slovenly, badly-formed outlines than to any other cause. How often we hear the student say, "It was intended to be"! There must be no intending. The outlines must be exact.

A good practice to increase manual dexterity is the writing of a memorized passage over and over. Keep the outlines up to a standard, and never let pupils forget that accuracy comes first and speed second. Practise also on a short sentence, writing it over and over for a minute. Go through a whole letter in this way, and then dictate the letter over and over, increasing the speed each time.

A good memory is a wonderful help in stenography, not only in remembering outlines, but in holding in the mind a sentence while writing it. It is good practice to dictate a sentence and have students write it in shorthand after you have finished dictating. Keep increasing the length of the sentence.

In practice on new letters, select letters that have very few new words. Keep students at sixty to seventy words per minute until they acquire a smoothness in writing and a good style of note. Do not try to force their speed. If you do, the result will be poorly written notes, which will end in disaster and future disappointment.

A word as to tools. A good pencil and good paper are essential to the best work in shorthand. A good fountain-pen is preferable to a pencil, but in school work we must of necessity use the lead pencil. I recommend a "Sovereign" or "Venus" HB as suitable in the majority of cases. Students should select a pencil that they can do good work with, and use that kind always. Notebooks that open away from the student are the best for school work. Never allow pupils to write on unruled paper.

Manual dexterity depends to a considerable extent on the manner in which the pencil is held. The position of the body and holding of the pencil should be the same as the position for muscular movement in writing. The pencil should not be grasped tightly, and the hand should be moved directly from the forearm and not from the wrist. The left hand should hold the page down flat, and be ready to turn the page when necessary.

A tremendous number of speed students seem to lack the perseverance necessary to master thoroughly the grammalogues and

contractions; yet there is no part of the subject which tells so markedly upon speed progress, with reliable transcription, as their proper mastery. It is not sufficient to merely know them; we must be able to reproduce the outlines instantaneously, correct in form, shading and position. When we consider that from sixty to eighty per cent. of the words in an ordinary business letter are grammalogues or contractions, we at once realize their importance. "How to Memorize the Grammalogues" is a little book that you will find useful in acquiring perfection. I have followed the method used in this book for years, and find it very satisfactory.

"Exercises on the Grammalogues and Contractions" will be found very useful also. In using this book, I would give only a short paragraph a day, having students look up and write out a line of each outline incorrectly written. This work will be very tedious to students, but there are no short-cuts in phonography. Practice and systematic study are essential to the highest success.

overdone, when it at once ceases to be a good servant and becomes

Phrasing is a very useful aid to speed, but is capable of being a bad master. A student writing at top speed will use only the most familiar phrases. I would say, therefore, that the same care must be taken in learning phrases as in learning the grammalogues and contractions. Only those that are known thoroughly will be used by the writer at top speed. We teach students that the essentials of a good phrase are, to be easily written and easily read; but I supplement this by saying that you will save much time and effort by using only such phrases as you find in the text-books or shorthand magazines.

Regular tests should be held once a week if at all possible. This method has been used by us with satisfaction. Dictate two letters of fifty words each at fifty words per minute as a first test. Allow fifteen minutes to transcribe neatly with pen and ink. Then change papers and have class check one another's errors with red ink, while you re-read the letters. Allow a total of twenty marks for the paper, and deduct two marks for each error, however small. This will mean that six errors will reduce the mark to forty per cent. Errors in punctuation and spelling are checked the same as errors in shorthand. Next week make the test the same speed, but increase the number of words, keeping the marking the same. Keep at this speed until practically all the class can make about ten out of

the twenty marks. As the speed is increased, increase the number of words, *i.e.*, for first test at eighty words per minute, use two eighty-word letters. Use the same marking, total of twenty and two off for each error. This method will enable the teacher to know exactly where each student stands. By encouraging and assisting the weaker ones, the class can be kept somewhat on an equal footing. Try to keep up the enthusiasm and do not let the poorer ones get discouraged.

In the third-year work I follow the same plan of weekly tests, but use three letters and count two off for a material error and one for an immaterial. But this year I don't confine the tests to letters, but give legal forms, selections from political speeches, scientific subjects, good authors, etc. The speed of dictation on these articles will depend on the character of the selection. All these transcripts are made on the typewriter.

For home-work and class-work in the third year we use a reading book, "Commercial Correspondence in Shorthand, and the Reporting Practice." This familiarizes students with correct shorthand forms and gives practice in thinking out new outlines. I also use such stories as "Sleepy Hollow" and "Rip Van Winkle," reading about a page a day, and having it read back the next day. For dictation in class, I use "The Student's Practice Book" and several others.

From examination of many transcripts, I would give the following hints as essential to producing good writers and accurate transcribers:

- (1) Thoroughness in study of rules.
- (2) Be absolutely sure of grammalogues and contractions.
- (3) Read extensively printed shorthand.
- (4) Insert initial vowels.
- (5) Vocalize proper names and unfamiliar words.
- (6) Exaggerate large hooks, circles, loops, double lengths and curves.
- (7) Write all words with short outlines, in position.
- (8) Punctuate, especially the period.
- (9) Follow the sense of the matter while writing.
- (10) Use good material.
- (11) Read everything written.

- (12) Learn to spell; but if in doubt use the dictionary.
- (13) Mix a good deal of common sense with the other ingredients.

LIST OF BOOKS AS HELPS.

On the Theory—

- (1) Practice Letters for Beginners.
- (2) Introduction in the Dictionary.
- (3) Pitman's Shorthand Writing Exercises and Examination Tests.
- (4) Commentary on Pitman's Shorthand.

On the Grammalogues and Contractions—

- (1) How to Practise and Memorize the Grammalogues.
- (2) Exercises on the Grammalogues and Contractions.

For Reading—

- (1) Dickens' Christmas Carol.
- (2) Sign of Four.
- (3) Return of Sherlock Holmes.
- (4) The Phonographic Monthly.
- (5) The Legend of Sleepy Hollow.
- (6) Rip Van Winkle.

Dictation Books—

For Junior Classes:

For Junior Classes:

- 1) Classified Commercial Correspondence.
- (2) Eldridge's Shorthand Dictation Exercises.
- (3) Pitman's Dictation Instructor.
- (4) Pitman's Progressive Dictator.

For Senior Classes:

- (1) Commercial Correspondence in Shorthand.
- (2) Student's Practice Book.
- (3) Pitman's Five-Minute Speed Tests.
- (4) Pitman's Advanced Speed Practice.

HOW I TEACH JUNIOR SHORTHAND.

MR. D. M. CLARK, BELLEVILLE.

In order that there may be no misunderstanding as to the meaning of the subject of this paper, let me say at once that I take it to include the whole of Shorthand theory. With me this means more than the first year's work, when the spaces allowed for it on the time-table are only five half-hours per week. Considering the amount of work to be covered in the subject, such a time is rather inadequate, and it appears more so when we consider the importance of this stage of the study of Shorthand, for it is in this part of the work that the student's success as a stenographer is determined to a very large extent. Some pupils seem to prove fairly competent at speed work up to a certain degree, with only a fair knowledge of the theory, while others proficient in theory seem slower at first. But before long the situation changes; the one who knows his theory imperfectly reaches a limit of speed, and usually a very mediocre one, and stops there, while the other keeps making progress both in taking dictation and, what is far more important, accurately transcribing it. I have invariably found that the accurate speed pupil, and therefore the one who "makes good" in an office, is the one who knows his theory.

Now, what is included in a knowledge of the theory? What acquirements should the pupil possess by the time he has completed theory work? What objectives should we as teachers keep in mind for him?

First—He should be able to write correctly with a little thought the outlines for all common words, including grammalogues and contractions, and have a good knowledge of the principles of correct phrasing.

Second—He should have acquired the ability to make with accuracy and ease, if not with rapidity, any strokes, hooks, joinings, etc., used in the system. (This may sound superfluous, but I know a pupil who took four months to learn to make the stroke "sh" correctly, and many who found considerable difficulty with the same or other strokes.)

Third—He should have learned to write from dictation. I do not mean at any great rate of speed of course, but there is a psychological difference between writing the spoken and the printed word,

and as shorthand has for its object the writing of spoken words, I think the habit should be formed at the beginning and fostered all through the junior work.

It may be impossible to accomplish all this in the first year's work, but whether we accomplish it in the first year or not, it must be done before really successful speed work can be begun. How are we to do it?

First—That the pupil may write correct outlines, he must know the rules of the system. They are the frame-work of the whole structure. As a sentence in an exercise in the text-book remarks, "If you transgress the plain rules of the system you cannot properly transcribe your notes, and your transcription is, therefore, sure to be incorrect." His work in this regard is plain; he must learn the rules, learn them and memorize them until they are a part of his mental make-up. No one can do this for him. But the teacher has his part too. Sometimes the rules are not clear to a pupil, and putting them in another way or giving examples of their application may make them plain. They should be taught the same as rules in any other subject are taught. It is for the teacher, too, to provide drills to help fix them permanently in the pupils' minds. In addition to this he must supplement the text-book. I sometimes feel that it is lacking in one respect, viz., giving the "why" for some of the rules and outlines. It seem so arbitrary, as if to say, "There's the rule, take or leave it, but never mind why," and the pupil feels himself at sea and somewhat wronged to be told a certain outline is incorrect when it looks perfectly good to him. Let us anticipate his difficulties, or at least give him an explanation for what we can. If he feels that the hook "n" would be quite appropriate in *minute* suggest to him that some day he is going to be required to write his outlines very quickly, and invite him to write it a couple of hundred times at full speed, using the hook "n," and another couple of hundred using the stroke "n," timing himself in both cases and comparing the accuracy of his strokes, and then decide which is better. He won't likely accept your invitation, but you can tell him that it has been tested in some such way and the best outline chosen. Similarly we can mention the advisability of keeping the outlines for the root parts of derived words similar, the placing of hooks and circles on the opposite sides of a stroke to keep it straight when written rapidly, the cases where a rule has for its object the principle of vowel indication, etc.

Sometimes the rules are indefinite, as where the book states "where the stroke *ing* is inconvenient the dot should be used," but gives no indication, except by examples in the exercises following, of where it is inconvenient, and a beginner cannot easily judge for himself. Yet a careful analysis of these examples by the teacher or pupil will show that certain consonants or class of consonants, either simple or compound, are followed consistently by one, while another list takes the other, and it will prove a more satisfactory way to learn them than by memorizing every word ending in "ing." To take another example: in the case of negative words beginning with "r," the book states that usually downward "r" alone is sufficient to distinguish them, but "it is sometimes necessary to double the 'r.'" If the average pupil is left to himself with this rule he will be no wiser than if it were not stated. He will likely see why downward "r" is usually sufficient, since it implies a preceding vowel, which only occurs in the negative, but "sometimes" will be synonymous with "guess" to him unless he is led to see that before the consonants "t," "d," "ch," etc., which require upward "r," regardless of vowels, it will be necessary to put another "r" to distinguish the negative.

Now I'm afraid all this looks like a criticism of the text-book, and such is not my intention at all. The reasons for most rules are implied somewhere in the book, but not in such a way that pupils readily see them in connection with the rules, and the teacher can, by bringing rules and reasons together, give a rational aspect to the study rather than one of unreasoning application of the memory.

But a rule learned is only useful when applied, and it is absolutely essential that practice in application be given, and so this should be our second and most important way of reaching our objective. It is only by practice, too, that the pupil can learn to make the different strokes, etc., quickly and accurately. The exercises in the text-book give plenty of material for this practice. I use, for the most part, the ones written in shorthand. These are read over in class, the pupils writing them in longhand. As homework, they are asked to turn them back into shorthand from five to ten times without referring to the book, except to correct the work each time after it has been written. At the next lesson I dictate this to them slowly, and they write the shorthand, afterwards handing the work in, or more frequently exchanging it and correcting it from the

text-book. The exercises in ordinary print in the text are written in shorthand and handed in for correction. This gives them a maximum of writing practice, considerable practice in writing from dictation, with only enough examining work by the teacher to keep him posted on their progress.

The amount of an exercise thus given for homework depends on the stage the pupils are in. I find that a class beginning the work will take about half an hour to practice from four to six lines of the shorthand exercises. As the year goes on, they write and think more quickly, and hence can take an increasing quantity.

When the theory has been covered I usually take a review of it before putting all the energies of the class on speed work. The transition to speed is usually easy, as the pupils are already accustomed to dictation, and the work to be done is simply practice and drill to increase their vocabulary and make the thinking more rapid and involuntary.

HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION

THE ATTITUDE OF THE STAFF TOWARD SCHOOL SPORTS.

E. O. SLITER, M.A., KINGSTON.

In this paper I propose to take for granted the value of field sports for physical development, and to confine myself to a consideration of their moral value. I shall try to show that the teacher should encourage school sports, and that he should direct and control them; I shall also venture to make some practical suggestions, drawn from a somewhat extended experience in directing the sports of schoolboys.

Devotion to field sports and games has long been an essentially British characteristic. Even to-day it is true, with but few exceptions, that where English is spoken, outdoor sports flourish; elsewhere they appear not to thrive. In Germany, for instance, one would look in vain for anything resembling in the least our baseball, cricket, football or hockey. An attempt was made not long ago to establish football in the German schools, but the game was suppressed by the authorities, as fostering roughness and brutality!

It is because sport is pre-eminently the amusement of Britain and her offshoots that the idea of "fair play" is essentially a British idea or ideal. To play the game according to the rules, to give the other party a chance, to respect a worthy opponent, to value the contest above the victory, to scorn mean advantages—these are the essentials of fair play.

Some peoples find these things hard to understand. They are beyond the comprehension of a race which regards might as the only right, and law as the refuge of weaklings. A few years ago an eminent German officer was in England as the guest of an English gentleman. He was taken to witness a football game between two school teams. The visiting team, lacking a man to complete their number, the vacant place was filled by a boy from the home school. This amazed the German. "Do you mean to tell me," said he, "that

that boy will do his best against his own school? It is not in human nature!" And he remained unconvinced, although every Briton knows that boy did a little more than his best.

The absence of this spirit of fair play is a sufficient explanation of German methods of warfare, of Germany's treatment of Belgium and Serbia, and in fact of Germany's militaristic spirit, and what we call Prussianism.

Field sports teach command of temper, promote that admirable combination of courage and perseverance which he calls "sand" or 'gameness,' and develop self-reliance, resourcefulness, initiative, cheerfulness under defeat, and sanity and steadiness in the hour of triumph. If this required proof, one need only point to the part which the young men trained on Canada's fields of sport are playing in Europe to-day.

This is in part what sports may do for boys. I say advisedly "may do," for I am fully aware that there are dangers which must be guarded against by proper direction and control. One of these is the danger of excess. Many a boy has been spoiled because there was no one to show him that sport is only a means to an end, and that that end is defeated if he makes sport the chief reason for his existence.

Another danger is the setting up of false ideals in sport itself—of losing sight of the principle that the contest is more than the victory, that is victory is creditable only if fairly won. Two forces tend in this direction. The one is the practice of betting, which is death to true sport, chiefly because it makes a win the all-important thing; another is professionalism, which is bad, for the same reason. That is why professional coaching is usually detrimental; winning becomes the only thing that counts; then follows the teaching of unfair tactics, and the stream is polluted at its very source.

If what I have said is true, it follows that sport should be encouraged in the school as essential to a boy's education. It also follows that there should be proper direction and control, to avoid the dangers already pointed out. We must never forget that boys will have their sport—if not in connection with the school, then elsewhere, and the teacher in that case will have no control whatever. We should remember, too, that school sports may be made the means of improving, in a most legitimate way, the relations between pupils

and staff, and of giving the teacher an influence he would find it difficult to secure by any other means. It should be borne in mind, also, that there are few better ways of cultivating a healthy and legitimate school spirit, or pride in the school.

It may not be amiss here to draw upon an experience of twenty-five years as a director of school sports, and give some practical and detailed suggestions about the management of these sports by the staff.

Every teacher should show himself interested. Boys are very quick to notice and respond to such interest, and the good feeling thus caused cannot but have its effect upon class work and upon the general tone of the school.

At the same time it is desirable that some one teacher should have charge. His duties are various and important.

He should direct all practices, and teach true sportsmanship. He should reprimand and punish, if necessary, by temporary banishment, displays of bad temper or violence, or the use of bad language, or any unfair tactics. Such reprimand or punishment, if the teacher uses good judgment, will be regarded as a deep disgrace.

He should have charge of finances, for here, as a rule, the boys need experienced guidance.

He should have the final voice in the selection of the teams to represent the school in contests with other teams. Boys are too much ruled by personal likes and dislikes to make always a wise selection. Cliques and factions are likely to cause discord. It may seem a contradiction to say that the boys should choose their own captain, but my experience is that it is best to allow them to do so, without any interference.

Above all, when the team leaves home, the teacher should be in charge; otherwise, the boys may, without in the least intending to do so, bring discredit upon themselves and the school.

A fair standard of scholarship should be insisted on for all who aspire to represent the school in athletics. Such a rule will discourage that most undesirable of students, the boy who is attracted to the school solely by its reputation for athletics. It will also tend to prevent undue absorption in sport, and will act as a spur to the boy who is active enough in the field, but indolent in the classroom.

Let me conclude by expressing my firm conviction that school sports are as necessary to the life of the school as is the work of the classroom; that a staff which will encourage and properly direct the sports of the school will find the boys taking a higher view of their play, getting more out of it, and being the better for it in every way; will find their relations with the boys more human, and their influence increased. It is an experiment worth trying, and one which will not bring disappointment.

SUPERVISING AND TRAINING DEPARTMENT

“HOW CAN THE NORMAL SCHOOL STAFFS AND THE PUBLIC AND SEPARATE SCHOOL INSPECTORS CO-OPERATE IN A MORE USEFUL WAY THAN AT PRESENT?”

C. B. EDWARDS, I.P.S., LONDON.

In spite of all I can do to prevent it, one word aggressively and persistently steps out of its place in the title of this paper, and places itself squarely across the path that one wishes to take in discussing the subject. That word is “CO-OPERATE.”

Co-operation demands intelligence, imagination, foresight and self-denial.

Big Business has long ago discovered a virtue in co-operation and has reduced it to a successful science.

The great corporations have gone to school, not in a little “Red School House,” but in costly laboratories, in which the teachers are high-salaried experts in science, finance, and business practice.

Huge sums are spent in experiments to determine what is best in business.

Governments are following in the path blazed by the corporations, and are establishing scientific schools which are organized and administered by the picked men who form the commissions, to investigate and to report as to the best methods of carrying out some problem of national importance, whether of agriculture, manufacturing, trade or making munitions.

By far the most splendid example of co-operation accomplished by the British race has been witnessed since the memorable 4th of August, 1914, but it was undertaken under the compulsion of fear of national destruction, and cost hundreds of thousands of lives and billions of dollars, that would have been saved had there been the same preparation for the avalanche of war that France had wisely provided. I think it can justly be said that an ounce of timely and intelligent co-operation is worth a ton of watchful waiting and useless wrangling.

For centuries John Bull has been depicted as a burly fellow, obstinate, hot-tempered, and self-opinionated. A gentler civilization has toned down these rugged terms, and now the typical Britisher, whether living in the Homeland or in one of the numerous "overseas" Dominions, is pleased to designate himself as being an individualist, which, being interpreted, means that he has an opinion of his own, and intends, if possible, to carry it out, no matter what the consequences may be.

In opposition to this tendency is a state of affairs in which men agree to submerge some of their individual longings and to work with others for the common good. This may fairly be termed co-operation. All organized human society is based upon this principle.

May it not be fairly said that the true test of a person's education is his ability to work harmoniously with others?

I am convinced that could the cordial co-operation of the Normal School Staffs, the School Inspectors, and the High School Teachers be secured and *utilized*, there would be created a force in education that would result in: (1) clear and definite ideas as to the true aims of elementary and secondary education; (2) an increase in the effectiveness of the teaching force; and (3) the outlining of Courses of Study which would contain a maximum of living-wood and a minimum of dead-wood.

Unity of action between the educational forces just mentioned can only be secured by the determination of each individual concerned to keep an open mind with respect to the recorded experience of men whose work in education entitles their opinions to attention, and the results obtained by the educational experiments conducted by men like Professor Dewey, Edward L. Thorndike, Professor C. H. Judd, and many others, whose lives are being devoted to educational research and investigation.

Opinions founded upon individual preference or prejudice must give way to methods which are the result of the united experience and tested experiments of acknowledged educational leaders.

THE AIM OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION.

Reduced to its lowest terms, the most that can be reasonably expected from our Public Schools is that they will enable the pupils attending them to obtain a mastery of the tools of education—one language, and the ability to use it in speech and writing; the funda-

mental operations in elementary mathematics, including the four simple rules, vulgar and decimal fractions, useful tables of weights and measures, simple percentage, and problems that come well within the scope of the pupil's development and economic environment; and the simple elements of science taught in such a way that the knowledge thus gained will be useful when the study is deepened and broadened in the secondary and college education.

In addition to these formal studies, the instinctive desire of the child for motor activity should be gratified by furnishing boys and girls with hand-work suitable to their development and sex. The typical activities embrace weaving, cutting, drawing in pencil and color, sewing, cooking and woodwork.

The modern school must enlarge its interest in the strongest natural inclination of the child which we call the play spirit, which is acknowledged to be the greatest educational factor for children up to the age of ten.

There remains another aspect of education, which is frequently omitted in considering the work of the school, viz., the habits that the child forms by imitating others in his social group, organizing his modes of behavior, using ideas, and reaching conclusions therefrom; in a word, this may be termed "Social Education," which includes right conduct towards one's self and others—in short, moral behavior.

REFORM OF CURRICULUM AND TEACHING PRACTICE.

What is needed is a Statute of Mortmain for schoolroom practice that will remove the "dead hand" of tradition and custom that for centuries has chilled the natural spontaneity and initiative of the child and instead has attempted to "mould" him according to the ideas of those who have but little real insight into the natural way young people get their mental growth.

Children at home and on the playground are natural and active, are in fact equipped by nature with "self-starters," but in many classrooms their little motors appear to be stalled and the teacher deems it his duty to "crank" each one separately—a task that wears out and wastes his energy, while the children lose the educative influence of willing effort.

There are, however, classrooms that are as ideal as can be hoped for, but they constitute, I fear, a minority rather than a majority.

TEACHER TRAINING.

The machinery for training teachers in Ontario is too well known to need explanation, and the writer has on intention of uttering one word of adverse criticism. The staffs of the Faculties of Education, the Normal and Model Schools, are picked men and represent the best teaching ability in the Province. May one offer some propositions as to the aims in teacher-training that might be considered by the Training, Inspectoral, and High School Department?

In judging teachers it might be decided to adopt some general scheme of classification, such as, for example, the following: First, those whose *personality* is inspiring, pleasing and moral. There is no doubt that it is the personality of the teacher that weighs most with the class.

Skill in teaching, natural and acquired, might be placed second. Speaking of the natural born teacher, the best example in literature that I can give is the immortal Tom Sawyer.

I cannot quite understand why Educational Authorities have not long ago prescribed that chapter in Tom Sawyer which describes how Tom "permitted" his playmates to whitewash the fence, as part of the curriculum of every Faculty of Education and Normal School.

As the ability in teaching that is acquired, we must remember that "Art is long." Time and patience must be allowed for development.

Scholarship is ranked third in the list, but of course this may cause discussion.

It must not be forgotten that education is different from instruction. One is permanent, the other may be ephemeral.

If the school history of those who seek admission to the teaching profession could be studied might it not be a guide to those into whose hands falls the problem of admitting them, in advising them for or against entering upon teaching as their life work?

Again as to the actual training given or attempted to be given in our institutions for teacher-training, may it not be possible that too much is attempted, and there is an effort to make a final job of what must be of necessity a life-long process of learning?

Would it not be better to leave the more academic subjects like the History of Education and even some parts of the Science of Education for subsequent study by the teachers? Summer schools are suggested as a possible means of keeping alive professional interest.

The National Educational Association has declared in its platform its belief "that it is a sound educational principle that whenever a teacher is at work or a child is in the schoolroom—be it in a city, town or country district—both teacher and child should have the benefit of close personal and professional supervision."

The importance of strong Superintending (Inspectoral) and Training Departments in a system of education is generally recognized.

The Department of Superintendence is conceded to be the most influential factor in the N. E. A. of the United States. Its meetings are held during the last week in February each year, and are attended by all the prominent educators in the United States and a considerable number of Canadian teachers.

Those who have had the good fortune to attend this convention must be impressed by the enthusiasm of the meetings, the eminence of those who address the different sections, and the cordial co-operation of educators representing every department of education. Especially striking to an Ontario teacher is the keen interest in Elementary Education.

It is not uncommon to hear Professor C. H. Judd, W. C. Bagley, Professor G. D. Strayer, and other eminent men deliver carefully prepared addresses on elementary schools.

The leaders of educational affairs from every part of the United States can, almost without exception, be found in attendance at the annual meetings of the Department of Superintendence.

From this department has emanated, I think, some famous reports, like the Committee of Ten, Committee of Fifteen, and the Committee of Twelve, which have had a wide and deep influence on educational administration in every State of the Union.

The National Bureau of Education is always well represented by the Commissioner and some of his assistants, and wields a great influence by the sheer ability of its representatives, not by any red tape, backed up by legal authority.

This is a striking example of what can be done by a Department of Education, which appeals to the intelligence of a great democracy, for the support of all branches of the Public Education.

May we not hope for (1) a Canadian Educational Association; (2) a Canadian Commissioner of Education; and (3) a Supervising and Training Department that will consist of those whose ability and achievements entitle them to rank as worthy leaders in the noble work of directing the training and education of Canada's future citizens?

DOES THE ONTARIO PUBLIC SCHOOL MEET THE PUBLIC NEEDS?

BY E. T. WHITE, B.A., B.PAED.

In entering upon the discussion of this topic there are several questions one might properly ask. Who is to decide what the public needs are? How far should the school meet the needs of the public as they exist to-day, and how far should it lead the way in shaping newer and better conditions? It is pretty evident that there will always be a need for readjustment. What we should be most concerned about is whether the school is moving in the right direction and adjusting itself with reasonable speed to the new requirements. It is worthy of note that the public seem disposed to place greater responsibility on the schools than formerly. Teachers should welcome this changed attitude and make an honest attempt to meet successfully the new demands. Honest criticism is usually a helpful thing, and criticism from the outside is often better than from the inside.

What is to be done with this far-reaching modern movement to adapt education to the immediate needs of all the people? It is productive of good, and with certain qualifications represents a real gain. An immediately practical education is a necessity for those whose formal education must be comparatively brief, that is for a large percent of the population. It is not desirable that the public schools should be overweighted with vocational studies, when we remember that a good general education is essential for all trades. Then again it is well to keep in mind that while good producers are a valuable national asset, intelligent consumers and citizens are equally desirable.

The boys and girls whom the public schools send out should be equipped for self-support and intelligent growth. They must be ready to cope with the industrial conditions in the midst of which they find themselves, and ready and able to serve the common good.

This call for readjustment on the part of the schools is not limited to our own country by any means. In a recent article on "The Future of English Education," viewed in the light of the present war, Michael E. Sadler undertakes to point out the gravest defects in English education. Some of these are peculiar to English conditions, but there are others which have a bearing on our own

situation. Mr. Sadler claims that the English schools fail to stimulate the intellectual interests of boys and girls of average ability, with resulting wastefulness in the husbanding of the mental powers of the nation. He also finds that parental opinion is not instructed in matters of education, as shown in indifference to the quality of teaching and in a capricious and casual choice of schools. How far do these defects apply to Ontario? Our "school mortality" still constitutes a serious problem, and it is highly probable that a certain percent of the pupils who leave school at an early age do so because the schools have failed to supply the necessary mental stimulation. We must also plead guilty of having many parents who are not really vitally interested in education, and naturally are not well informed as to the real purpose of the school.

In the United States increasing interest is being manifested in educational problems. Several attempts have been made to reorganize the work of the public schools in order to meet more adequately present day needs. These efforts have been largely along the line of a reorganized curriculum with a view to vitalize school studies.

In Ontario we might profitably recall the summing up of the situation by Dr. Seath, Superintendent of Education, in his report on Industrial Education, in 1911. Dr. Seath gives two fundamental needs that the schools, if successful, must meet: (a) A good general education as a basis of all vocations; and (b) a closer connection between the school and the activities of life. We shall do well to keep clearly before us the value of a good general education as a foundation on which to build. Dr. Seath in the same report names four obstacles to the modernizing of schools in Ontario.

1. Uniform Departmental Examinations.
2. Academic tradition.
3. Irregular attendance.
4. Early exodus of pupils destined for the industries.

To what extent do these obstacles still persist? There is still the desire for an occupation that allows "clean hands and good clothes," and the inducements to follow industrial pursuits, though much improved, are not equal to those that lead to the professions. In the matter of irregular attendance, the reports from inspectors

are very encouraging, and it would appear that the situation in this respect is much improved. As stated above, in "school mortality" there is still a problem seeking solution.

The subjects of study that have the most direct bearing on the practical activities of life are manual training, household science and agriculture. It will be of interest to compare the present position of these subjects with that of 1911.

MANUAL TRAINING.

1911—

12 cities giving instruction to 43,211 pupils.

11 towns giving instruction to 1,680 pupils.

1915—

17 cities giving instruction to 63,506 pupils.

26 towns giving instruction to 10,527 pupils.

HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE.

1911—

9 cities giving instruction to 11,990 pupils.

6 towns giving instruction to 1,613 pupils.

1915—

18 cities giving instruction to 31,509 pupils.

13 towns giving instruction to 2,117 pupils.

AGRICULTURE.

1911—In Normal Schools, 4,629 pupils.

1915—In Normal Schools, 16,030 pupils.

Special equipment for manual training and household science is confined almost entirely to cities and towns.

Taking this short period, 1911-1915, we have good reason to be encouraged by the increased attention to the subjects of manual training, household science and agriculture. However, I note that there are still one hundred towns that are not giving any special attention to these practical subjects, and so far as I can learn from available reports, no very marked steps have been taken to give the work in manual training a more practical bearing in accordance with the Act of 1913.

Progress in agriculture has in some respects been a little discouraging. The work in the schools has failed to grip the attention of the farmers. Still I believe a good deal of valuable missionary

work has been done which has laid a good foundation for future progress. The number of teachers certificated in agriculture has been materially increased. Very valuable special courses for inspectors have been given, and much information has been circulated by means of special charts, circulars and bulletins. The Home Gardens and the School Fairs are doing much to create a real interest in the better type of agriculture. In schools where the work has been well handled it has done much to vitalize many of the ordinary school subjects, such as arithmetic and composition. Unfortunately, there are many difficulties to be overcome. Parents and teachers lack interest in the subject. Added to this is the frequent change in teachers. The lack of a definitely arranged course of study in agriculture, properly articulated with the other school studies, has made it difficult for the inexperienced teacher to handle the subject to the best advantage.

The modern school is becoming more and more expensive, and there is great need for care in looking after the problem of school finance. There is need for intelligent and sympathetic support on the part of the public. Unfortunately, in many quarters there is manifested too little faith in public officials and too great unwillingness to participate in public service. The teaching of civics must be made more vital in order to give the pupils of our public schools a greater appreciation of the public duties which belong to a citizen and a greater readiness to put aside selfish private interests that they may the better serve the public weal.

INSPECTORS' SECTION

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

J. W. MARSHALL, B.A., WELLAND.

Gentlemen,—Heartily do I thank you for the honor you have conferred upon me by electing me successively to the offices of Secretary and President of this the most representative of the whole Province of any Section of the O.E.A. Apart from the Legislature, it is doubtful whether any organization of its size represents as much of Ontario as this Section. I wish also to acknowledge the co-operation of so large a number of our members in our undertakings; particularly was this the case in the fact that ninety-two Inspectors contributed equal amounts toward the \$920 for the purchase of a machine gun for use overseas.

It is a matter of great satisfaction to Inspectors as well as to others who expect to spend their lives in the interests of education, that the Provincial Legislature has made the Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Bill law.

In our daily work we are often led to ask what can best be done for pupils who, under present conditions, fall short of completing the public School course. Can we have a real public school leaving standard without attaining to which no pupil's attendance at school may cease at 14 or 15 or even 16 without special permission of the Principal or the Inspector?

In Ohio the law requires children to remain at school until they are 16 unless they must go to work. Even then permission is given only in case a definite position is arranged for, and if the child wishes later to change to another position, this permission must be renewed. Also, if he stops working, the school keeps in touch with him and can see that he goes back to school.

In Cincinnati the factory shops of the city become the school shops for the pupils, and thereby partly restore the old apprentice-

ship system. This affords facility for change, if a pupil makes a wrong choice of an occupation at first.

It has been said that the first business of the public school is to teach the child to live in the world in which he finds himself, to understand his share in it, and to get a good start in adjusting himself to it.

Ideals of culture and education were in the early schools, and still are, to some extent, based upon the interests and demands of a leisure class. Present day education should aim to give an equal chance to everyone, but those who leave school from Forms II. or III. do not appear to be getting this.

Schools must have a social relation by being made a part of active life and not by being isolated.

A great deal is written about the public school system of Gary, Indiana, with special reference to the novel features of school administration that are being worked out there, or else with emphasis on the opportunities for industrial training. But the best thing there is the social and community idea.

In Gary the number of adults using the school buildings is greater than the number of children, though, of course, the number of hours they attend school is much shorter. Everything possible is done in co-operation with church and home. There is no compulsion, however, to keep children at school after the legal age. This is overcome by making the schools obviously useful for each individual, so that he wants to stay because he is enabled to see the immediate value of his work. The school press prints from time to time bulletins explaining to the pupils and their parents the advantages the schools afford. Some of these show in figures the relative positions and salaries of high school graduates as compared with those who leave school at 14, as they appear two or three or ten years after leaving.

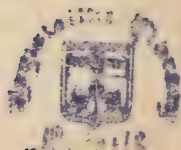
Pupils are classified as "rapid," "average" or "slow" workers. Rapid workers finish the 12 years of school at about 16, average pupils at 18, and slow workers at 20, though the slow worker may be more thorough than the rapid. Fifty-seven per cent. of all the school children in Gary who are 13 years of age are in the seventh grade or above it.

The pupils of the lower grades are allowed to see as much as possible of the work being done by the higher grades, even to the

extent of being helpers for the high school pupils at laboratory work, or of being an audience for them. There is also an auditorium period for the use of the general community, where any person who is doing anything interesting may come in and tell the children about it. Yet conditions in Gary are not ideal. The idea is, however, that the boy who intends to be a carpenter or a painter needs to stay in school just as many years as the boy who is going to college.

An important point in education is that pupils should form the habit of connecting the information they acquire with the activities of life; yet not necessarily must all this be utilitarian, or that all problems be in terms of money, but that we steer between the extremes of bookishness on the one hand and a narrow, so-called practical education on the other.

Agriculture in rural schools has in part as its aim to overcome the disadvantages of isolation that have oppressed the rural teacher, and to make use of the natural environment of the child, and may yet become a means of helping to solve the problem of the ungraduating pupil.



THE TRAINING OF THE TEACHER AS A PHASE OF THE INSPECTOR'S WORK.

F. W. MERCHANT, M.A., D.PAED.

On the morning that I began to write this paper, I examined the column of "Teachers Wanted" in a daily paper. The first advertisement asked for an "experienced teacher," and all that followed either demanded, or required applicants to state, experience.

When I was in Europe I asked the Director of a trade school which appeared to furnish its students with a most complete equipment in practical work, if the school fitted its graduates to take at once satisfactory positions as journeymen in any of the trades covered by the courses of study offered. His answer was, No. He said that there were certain features of trade training which a man acquires in working in commercial shops under productive conditions that no trade school, however well organized and equipped, can supply.

A short time ago I was discussing with the Dean of one of the leading Technical Colleges of the United States the character of the engineering courses given in the schools of America. In the course of the conversation, he referred to the lack of ability on the part of the graduates of Technical Colleges to adjust themselves at once to the demands of work in practical fields, and pointed out that a man must receive a second course of training outside of college before he can be given charge of any important engineering contract.

These three cases are taken from different fields, but they have a distinctive feature in common, they illustrate the general law that experience acquired under actual working conditions is necessary to the attainment of proficiency in any field demanding knowledge and skill.

In the training of teachers, the necessity for combining practical experience with theoretical instruction has been recognized from the beginning. The Model or Practice School is an essential part of the Normal School system, but there has always been a feeling that there was something which practice in the practice school did not or could not give. When one asks for a frank criticism

of the Normal School system, he is almost certain to receive in answer some statement regarding the weakness of the school in giving opportunities for instruction in practical teaching. Now, doubtless, such weaknesses exist, but at the same time we must frankly recognize that, while practice schools and practice school systems are imperfect and may be improved, no system can be devised by which a teacher can acquire real experience in the government and control of schools through schools specially organized for this purpose. These schools are valuable because they assist the teacher to apply the general principles of teaching and to acquire better habits of instruction and class management, but they cannot be made to take the place of the school whose sole purpose is the training of children. The teacher's real experience must be acquired under actual working conditions in our Public and Separate Schools. The problem is to control and to improve this experience under such conditions.

At the outset I desire to emphasize the fact that guidance and control are necessary; it is not a certainty that experience necessarily leads to proficiency.

A Board of School Trustees advertises for experience as if it were something of real value in itself, irrespective of its nature or the conditions under which it has been acquired. Does the Board that engages a teacher of forty years' experience get a jewel or a gold brick? Possibly, a jewel; doubtless, now and then a gold brick; in most cases, neither.

The mistake is that we think of experience and speak of it as if it were a commodity, something whose value is measured by its quantity, something that can be acquired, possessed, and even disposed of or lost. But experience is inseparable from life, or, to put it more truly, it is the form which living assumes. The question, therefore, is not one of experience or no experience, not a question of much or little, but one of character and value, and character and value are not to be measured in units of time. Experience, when it is a matter of progressive and continuous improvement along any significant line, becomes a most valuable acquisition, but when it consists in the fixing permanently of useless or unnecessary ideas or habits, it may be the most undesirable of qualities.

Experience, then, to be valuable must be controlled. This was fully recognized in the relationship of the apprentice to the master

in the apprenticeship systems of trade training. The same principle was applied in the earlier days in training the youth for professions. They obtained their training in law, theology, or in medicine mainly through association with those learned in these professions. The pupil-teacher system of the training of teachers was in vogue in England in our day. The apprenticeship system in the trades is disappearing, and so far nothing has been established to take its place; hence, the chaos which exists in trade training. The professional schools have taken the place of apprenticeship in the professions.

The weakness of the apprenticeship system is apparent. It necessarily deals with the details of practical experience rather than with the discussion of general principles. On the other hand, the weakness of the theoretical schools is now also becoming apparent. General principles to be of value must find their application in practical experience, which should be acquired under judicious and competent supervision. Efforts are being made in certain professions to carry out this scheme by requiring candidates for degrees and diplomas to take more practical courses. For example, in medicine, candidates who have finished their theoretical courses are required to spend a minimum amount of time in a hospital or in practice under the direction of an experienced practitioner. The necessity for controlled practical experience in engineering is being met in some colleges by the development of co-operative systems in accordance with which a student is engaged alternately in study and experimentation in the college and in practical work outside.

The teacher's position is somewhat different from that of a member of either of the professions just cited. In some respects he is more favorably situated. The teacher's work throughout the whole course is supervised by officers whose special duty it is to help him increase its efficiency. This belongs to our sphere as inspectors. Section 4 (a) of the Regulations governing inspection reads: "In his inspection the Inspector shall bear in mind the provisions of the curriculum and the special needs of the school; he shall assist the teacher in selecting and planning his work; and, by judicious criticism and advice, and, especially, by teaching illustrative lessons, he shall endeavor to improve the methods of instruction."

How shall the teacher's experience under actual working con-

ditions be directed into channels that will increase his power and add to his efficiency?

Primarily, this is the teacher's own problem because the direction of personal experience is necessarily self-direction. But while absolute external control is impossible and continuous interference usually mischievous, the conditions of self-direction may be controlled. The teacher's ideals and practice, like those of other people, are subject to influences, good or bad. Here the inspector finds his opportunity, and at the same time his problem.

I shall discuss these questions separately: First, the opportunities; second, the means.

Now, what lines of opportunity for teacher training are open to the inspector?

Permit me to suggest the following:—

1. In the forming of the teacher's ideals.
2. In increasing the teacher's determination of purpose.
3. In improving the teacher's academic attainments.
4. In improving the teacher's knowledge of principles and methods of instruction.
5. In the teacher's acquisition of skill.

I need not lecture a group of inspectors on the importance of ideals. To say that the teacher should act from ideals is simply another way of saying that his experience should be self-determined, because the ideal is the point of departure and the directing force in accomplishing any work carried on by an intelligent agent. The worker who is following slavishly the minute directions of another is a machine; and I take it that we shall agree that a teacher should be an intelligent agent, not a machine. A rich and fruitful experience is developed only through freedom and self-determination.

The student teacher has conceived, through reflection on his reading and from contact with the Normal School masters more or less clear and inspiring ideals of the teacher's work and of the ways in which it is to be carried out. He leaves a Normal School in most cases with a determination to realize these ideals in his practice. What are the results? Contact with school conditions has a strong tendency to shatter such ideals. This is natural, because, in most cases, they are conceived to meet imaginary, not real, situations.

The teacher must readjust his conceptions to cope with the actual conditions. The first step is to make a careful study of the

conditions. Many a teacher fails through lack of interpreting the demands of the situation in which he is placed. It does not necessarily follow that because certain conditions exist that the teacher is aware of them or interprets them rightly. Interpretation in this, as in every other field, requires a background of experience. At this stage the inspector can be most helpful in assisting the teacher to understand more fully the real demands of the position and to readjust his conceptions to meet these demands.

What the teacher needs is not positive direction but encouragement and effective help. We must remember that this is a most critical stage in his experience. The tendency is for the beginner, when his carefully thought out plans fail, to become discouraged and to lose faith in ideals. If ideals cannot be realized, why conceive ideals? Why strive for higher ends when effort is sure to be followed by failure? Let matters drift, put in time, keep school. Every inspector recognizes this phase in the experience of the teacher. Most teachers pass through it. The danger is that the attitude becomes permanent and that the teacher swells the ranks of the routine workers.

In speaking of ideals, you will understand that I have reference not simply to those higher visions which should attract from afar the teacher to more noble endeavor, but more particularly to the use of the mind in planning from step to step intelligent responses to the ordinary every-day situations of the schoolroom. To put it more plainly, I am speaking of the practice, all too uncommon, of using the mind as an effective instrument in every-day work. When we have assisted the teacher to become in reality a worker from intelligent plans rather than a slave of mechanized routine, we have become a most active force in teacher training.

My second suggestion has reference to determination of purpose. I am in the habit of telling Normal School students that I am more interested in their determination to carry out plans than I am in their knowledge of methods or their requirements in skill. I believe I am right. Ideals and plans are good in their way, but they are of no value to the school until realized. The realization of ideals means willingness, determination, wilfulness. We all assent to the attribute of willingness. Everyone appreciates the willing worker, especially at this stage, when the idler, the procrastinator and the excuse-maker is everywhere in evidence. The per-

son who is actually willing to adopt suggestions and to carry out directions, and is faithful in his efforts, is thoroughly appreciated. Possibly we are not so enthusiastic in commending determination or wilfulness. Are not the determined and wilful teachers the thorns in our flesh? Yet when we think of it we must recognize that the real difference between strength and weakness of character is at root a difference in determination of will. Difficulties and obstacles are overcome and important ends reached only through the development of determination and practical force to realize in achievement what has been conceived in ideal. Determination and wilfulness are to be condemned only when the ends to be reached are lacking in worth. The wilful teacher is a thorn in my flesh only when the ideals are wrong—his or mine. His judgment may be right, mine wrong; or mine may be right and his wrong. To mend matters the ideals must be reconstructed in the light of a more intelligent view of the situation. The practical force for realization should be conserved. We cannot make a teacher strong by breaking him into our ways of acting. We strengthen him by helping him into saner ways of thinking.

My third suggestion refers to the academic attainments of teachers. When I was Principal of a Collegiate Institute, the members of my staff were constantly complaining of the lack of preparation in the Entrance candidates coming up from the Public and Separate Schools. Normal School masters assure me that the attainments of those who pass the Normal Entrance examination are, to say the least, very unsatisfactory. Inspectors are in the habit of telling me of the woeful ignorance of Normal School graduates. Now and then a man of the world confides to me his belief that school-men in general—teachers and inspectors—are a hopelessly narrow and pedantic group, with little knowledge of the world and without real intellectual interests.

If these views are accepted, it would appear that there is a weakness all along the line; but such statements are always more or less overdrawn; yet do they not express a basic truth? At every stage in the learner's progress a wide fringe of vagueness, uncertainty and incompleteness surrounds the circle of real knowledge. As the area of the known is widened, the fringe is extended.

It is with this fringe that the teacher is specially concerned, and it is natural that its vagueness, its crudeness, and its contradic-

tions will at times depress him, but it is unwise to complain of its existence. Normally, this fringe represents the growing area of the mind. It is the area of incompleteness; yet it is, at the same time, the area of interest and of reconstruction. It is a characteristic of every healthy growing intellect. It has its place in the mind of the philosopher as well as in that of the school boy. The aim of the learner should be to preserve it and to utilize it.

One of the problems is to keep the teacher's intellect in a healthy, growing condition. The vitality of his experience will depend upon it. While he is at school he is subject to the demands of the course of study and to the stimulus of the teacher. When he leaves school, these demands and stimuli are removed, and there is a danger that growth, which has been more or less fictitious, will cease. Here the inspector finds his opportunity.

We need never expect that teachers will come to the work with perfect knowledge. The best that we can hope for is that the conditions of growth have been preserved. Our object as inspectors is to see that these conditions are maintained, and that intellectual growth continues to take place. I need not remind you that the necessity for growth applies to all teachers, not to beginners alone. With the beginner, the claims of his new position frequently furnish a sufficient impetus towards intellectual endeavor, but when the strangeness of his situation disappears and he begins to feel himself perfectly at home in his school, intellectual demands cease and the temptation to follow a life of routine grows strong. The need for incentives is therefore often greater in the case of the experienced teacher than with the beginner.

My fourth suggestion has reference to the teacher's methods of instruction. As inspectors you are fully seized of the fact that the teachers who leave the Normal School are not perfect masters of method. Their professional equipment, like their academic, is imperfect. Our purpose in the Normal School has been to give the student teacher instruction along fairly detailed and definite lines in the more important Public School subjects, but at the same time to give him such a grasp of the general principles of teaching as will help him to understand the reasons for the detailed procedure. Considering the student's immaturity and the shortness of the time at his disposal, this scheme appears to give the best preparation for beginning work. The student's knowledge of routine and detail

helps him to take up work at once, and his grasp of principles gives him a basis for modifying and adjusting his methods of instruction to suit the individuality of his pupils and his own growing interests and powers.

This leaves, as you will see, a wide range for experimentation and improvement on the part of the teacher under actual working conditions. At this juncture, the young teacher will need guidance and assistance. Here again the inspector finds an opportunity.

As a rule, you have, I believe, taken advantage of this opportunity. In fact, in my opinion, some of the best work that you have done for your schools is in this field. I desire here to express my appreciation of its importance, and at the same time to emphasize the necessity for its continuance. The Department of Education is endeavoring to assist you in this matter. It was mainly for this purpose that the series of manuals of method were published. I am pleased to learn from letters recently received by the Department that many of you appreciate the place and value of these books. I may say that their purpose was two-fold: First, to be used as text-books in the Normal Schools, and thus to reduce the time to be taken up in the teaching of principles and methods, and to increase that to be given to practice in their application to organization and lesson procedure. Second: to be used as schoolroom manuals which teachers will consult in preparing their lessons from day to day. In fact, one of the purposes of the use of these books in the Normal Schools is so to familiarize the student teachers with them that they will appreciate their value and make daily use of them when they are appointed to schools.

One of the very best ways in which, in my judgment, you can help teachers to improve their methods is to expect them to make constant use of these works and other supplementary books and periodicals covering the same field. You will understand that I am not pleading for a slavish use of books, nor am I asking that your efforts, which have been so well directed through personal instruction and illustrative teaching, should be discontinued. The books are intended to be an aid to personal work, not a substitute for it.

My last suggestion is that you give attention to the training of the teacher in skill.

It is unnecessary to point out the distinction between a knowledge of methods and skill in presentation. Most students can

acquire a theoretical knowledge of methods, but many fail in ever learning to transform theory into practice.

For those who lack almost absolutely the aptitude to teach, little or nothing can be done. The function of the Normal Schools is to prevent, as far as possible, such persons from getting into the schools. Many are thus shut out, but some slip by. It is difficult for the Normal School master to foresee all the possibilities for success in nervous and awkward youths. He hesitates to decide against a student when he knows that there is a possibility of his making a mistake and of thus ruining a life career. Theoretically, the inspector is expected to shut out those who, after two years of practice under ordinary school conditions, still signally fail to make good. So far this barrier has not proved a serious obstacle in the way of the weak entering the profession. Our privilege should, I believe, be more frequently exercised. Some day, possibly, I may set you a good example.

I have, of course, been referring to extreme cases.

Most beginners are seriously lacking in skill. This is to be expected, because skill depends on habits of mental and physical control which, in the case of most, come only with years of practice.

This control means the suppression of diffuse and useless tendencies and habits in the direction of all efforts towards the attainment of the results to be sought in instruction. The ideal is to realize the purpose of each lesson with a minimum of expenditure of time and energy. Now, as inspectors, we know how seldom this end is attained, even by our most skilful teachers. The tendency to introduce extraneous matter, to ask unsuitable and unnecessary questions, to echo pupils' answers, to use awkward and distracting gestures—these and a host of other disturbing tendencies and habits detract from the teacher's effectiveness and waste the pupils' time.

The distressing factor in the situation is that many of these tendencies are found almost as firmly rooted habits in all student teachers. They are certainly contagious; it would almost appear that they are hereditary.

Now, what is to be done about it?

A great deal of the time of the critic teachers in the Normal Model Schools is taken up in the attempt to replace these habits by more useful responses. But such habits have a tendency to reappear. You are certain to find them growing even more firmly:

rooted in your schools. It is clear that here again you will find an opportunity for effective teacher training. To uproot such habits requires very direct and persistent treatment. One of the chief difficulties arises from the fact that in most cases the habits are unknown to those who are subject to them. I have heard a training teacher lecture his students against practices which he, in the very act of correction, was himself committing. When, later, I called his attention to the contrast between his theory and his practice, he told me that he was not aware that he had fallen into the error to which he took exception.

The first step in assisting a teacher in such a position is to awaken him to consciousness. In some cases this is all that is required; in fact, it is about all you can do. The teacher himself must do the rest.

This idea suggests that I have spent most of my time in discussing my first question, the opportunities and the fields for teacher training open to the inspector. Now let me turn to the second, the means.

In this connection let me re-state the position which I took at the outset. The question of the improvement of a teacher is primarily his own problem, and he is the only one who can accomplish permanent results. For him self-improvement is the only form of real improvement. This position is not always fully recognized. As a principal, I have had weak teachers on my staff, who would transfer to me the task of their reconstruction, and who would blame me for their incompetence when it appeared to them that I had failed at my job.

The fundamental principle to be kept in mind in discussing ways and means to improve the teacher is that he himself must conceive the plans and take the active part in carrying them into execution. It is not a question of his consent or even co-operation, but one of ideals, of determination, and of execution. It is for this reason that in describing the fields open to the inspector for teacher training, I placed the teacher's ideals and determination of purpose first. If we succeed here, we have little more to do.

I have taken time and pains to emphasize the freedom of the teacher as a self-determining agent because I fear that at times in our efforts to mould the teacher in accordance with our ideas, we overlook this fundamental consideration. Do not the directions

usually given, and even the methods adopted for teacher training, seem to imply that we have the power to make over the teacher in conformity to a definite plan? The word training itself suggests it.

Let me repeat again, the teacher must reconstruct herself.

Where, then, does the inspector find a place in the process?

The teacher's plans and purposes, like those of the rest of us, are conceived and realized under the limitations of the narrow environment in which he lives, and most of these plans and purposes have direct reference to elements in that environment. Now the inspector occupies an outstanding place in the teacher's world, especially in the young teacher's world. In fact, in my opinion, the inspector is, on the whole, the most influential factor in the teacher's environment. I never fully appreciated the extent of his influence until, as Chief Inspector, I visited schools in all sections of the Province. I found that the work done in the schools by the teachers reflected quite generally the ideals of the inspector.

Take, for example, the question of the subject matter of instruction. In one county a certain phase of grammar was being emphasized in every fourth class; in another, special attention was being given to accuracy and rapidity in the simple rules of arithmetic; in a third, the children in all the classes were being trained in supplementary reading; in a fourth county, nature study was stressed; and so on.

The reason for this is apparent. Most of the teacher's plans of work take into account the desires, the expectation, and even the hobbies of the inspector.

The inspector makes himself felt as a determining factor in the teacher's environment in two ways. First, through personal dealing; second, through the conditions he sets up in his inspectorate, the atmosphere, so to speak, which he creates.

I remember, many years ago, listening to an address in this Section discussing the first of these means by which the inspector makes his influence felt. The speaker was describing his method of making teachers acquainted with his opinions of their work. He said that his habit was at each inspection of a school to make full notes of his criticisms of the teacher's methods, with suggestions for improvement, and to leave a copy in the Register. The teacher was instructed to read it after his departure.

This method of personal dealing has something to recommend

it. The teacher would certainly read with attention the statements left by the inspector, and possibly would reflect upon them. The inspector, on his part, was not required to overcome the diffidence which, evidently, he felt in speaking personally to the teacher. He also escaped, possibly, the teacher's reaction on his strictures. But should there be any restraint in discussing with the teacher the means of his improvement? And might not the teacher's reaction be a most valuable contribution towards the realization of the end sought?

Personally, I believe that the inspector's methods of dealing with the teacher should be most frank and direct, based on mutual understanding, a recognition of the fact that the teacher's methods are not perfect, that the inspector is not looking for perfection because perfection is impossible, that the end to be sought is the progressive improvement in the teacher's efficiency throughout his whole course, and that both inspector and teacher have a mutual interest in the realization of this end. Such an understanding should establish a basis of co-operation and break down restraint.

The inspector's part in the plan is to discuss frankly with the teacher the strength and weakness of the teacher's work, to commend improvement, and to suggest further lines of advance.

The teacher, on his part, when this understanding is established, should not regard the inspector's criticisms as complaints, but should feel free to state his point of view, to discuss his problems and difficulties, and to unfold his plans for the inspector's suggestions.

But the inspector makes himself felt also through the character of the environment which he creates in his inspectorate. Now, let me say that this is not a question of environment or no environment, but one of extent and character; because every inspector, the most colorless as well as the most enlightened and energetic, creates an environment.

The teacher lives in this environment, and his growth in experience along all the lines I have noted is conditioned by the assistance and the stimulation which it offers.

Now, how shall this assistance and stimulation be given? The answer to this question would furnish the subject for a full address. In general terms, I may say that the means for creating a stimulating and vitalizing atmosphere are varied: personal interest and

counsel, teachers' institutes, local and county reading circles, social and literary societies, public lectures by inspiring speakers, the direction into extra-mural University courses, etc. These and other activities in which the inspector may interest himself may be made important aids, but, back of all, must be the intellectual and moral force of the inspector's personality.

A friend and I attended a lecture recently. The speaker was a noted educator. His subject was the "Qualifications and the Work of the Teacher." After the lecture, I asked my friend what he thought of it. "It was good," he said, "but not altogether satisfying. The lecturers' ideal teacher was too coldly intellectual, no inspiration."

We agree with my friend that inspiration is a most necessary quality in the teacher. But what shall we say of the inspector? Should he not be a centre of inspirational energy?

On speaking of the fields for teacher training, I emphasized the fundamental necessity for strengthening the teacher in self-determining power. The opportunity can be met only by inspiration. The spiritual is influenced only by the spiritual.

When a teacher tells you, after your inspection of his school, that your visit has been an inspiration to him, is he not paying you the highest compliment? What does he mean? If his statement is not mere verbal flattery, he is telling you that your visit has strengthened in him the determination to conceive and to realize ever higher and higher ideals. You have been of the greatest service to him, because you have quickened in him that divine spirit of restlessness that is the natural spur to renewed and successful endeavor. You have been an inspiration.

THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF MATHEMATICS.

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The subject of this paper is so vast that volumes could be written upon it; you will, therefore, readily understand and pardon me if I hasten over some very important points of it and limit myself to those that are essential to a great general view of the rise and progress of Mathematics in the world.

I shall begin by asking you to follow me back to the most primitive ages, and consider those nations whose history lifts the veil that hides the dead past from the living present, taking up particularly such of them as have contributed to the origin and development of this science.

Authentic profane history of the peoples that inhabited the fertile valleys of the Tigris and the Euphrates begins with the foundation, in Chaldea and Babylonia, of one kingdom, whose subjects had till then been divided into distinct nations. This region, it is generally believed, was the cradle of the human race. For that reason let us, in this summary of the history of Mathematics, begin with the people who dwelt there.

THE BABYLONIANS.

The Babylonians were a mathematical race; and, in our study of their efforts in this line of intellectual activity, we shall first speak of their system of notation. It was the cuneiform, or wedge-shaped, symbol, in which a vertical wedge stood for 1, and an arrow-head-shaped figure placed horizontally with the point towards the left, stood for 10. Two of the symbols for 10 with three wedges to their right meant 23, which justifies the conclusion that they made use of the principle of place-value. Everyone will recognize in this the rise of the decimal system.

A Babylonian tablet, written probably many centuries before Christ, has been found, on which the squares of the numbers from 1 to 60 appear. Those of the first seven numbers are given thus: 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49; then 1.4, 1.21, 1.40, 2.1, are given as the squares of 8, 9, 10 and 11 respectively, the table continuing up to 60. This seems to be the application of a sexagesimal system; thus,

in 1.40, the 1 would equal 60, which added to 40 would make up 100, the square of 10, etc. This system would seem to have been introduced in order to avoid the too great number of arrow-heads and wedges required to write numbers beyond 50. If this solution be not correct, then this tablet is wholly unintelligible.

The sexagesimal system was also used in fractions, $1/2$ and $1/3$ being represented by 30 and 20 respectively, the reader having to supply the denominator 60. This system was, later on, introduced into Greece by Hypsicles and Ptolemaeus, and was subsequently used in astronomical calculations till the 16th century, when it finally yielded to our decimal fractions, just evolved by Stevin, in 1585, who wrote in French a special treatise, called "*La Disme par laquelle nous pouvons operer en nombres entiers sans fractions.*"

In explanation of the origin of the sexagesimal system, Cantor assumes that the Babylonians considered the year as composed of 360 days, and represented it as a circle. He thinks they calculated one day as $1/360$ of the circumference, and that, later on, probably learning by measurement that the radius can be applied to the circumference six times as a chord, they further learned that the angle subtended by the chord was one of 60 degrees, or $1/6$ of 360. Later on, again, when greater precision was required, they subdivided the degree into minutes.

The division of the day into 24 hours and of the hour into 60 minutes, these again into seconds, following logically the division of the angle on the scale of 60, is due to the Babylonians. A second tablet shows that the Babylonian mathematicians evolved arithmetical and geometrical progressions; but they do not appear to have invented mathematical processes such as we shall see later on among the Egyptians and the Greeks. As the Babylonians worshipped the heavenly bodies, it will readily be understood that they applied their knowledge of mathematics to the study of these, and how, therefore, this study gradually developed into astronomy.

THE EGYPTIANS.

Egypt is one of the oldest known countries in the world. Its inhabitants built the wonderful pyramids, and these alone suffice to establish their knowledge of practical mathematics at least. All Greek writers on the subject unanimously ascribe to the Egyptians the first discoveries in mathematics. Among others, Aristotle says this science was developed in Egypt because there the priests had

leisure to study it. Josephus, however, says: “. . . for, before Abraham came into Egypt (from Chaldea), they (the Egyptians) were unacquainted with those parts of learning” (arithmetic and astronomy).” Herodotus and many other ancient writers say that geometry in particular had its rise in Egypt. A hieratic papyrus, actually in the British Museum, was deciphered in 1877 by Eisenlohr, who found it to be a manual containing problems in arithmetic and geometry. It was written by Ahmes before 1700 B.C., and was entitled: “Directions for Obtaining the Knowledge of All Dark Things.” Might not this be the real origin of the modern term, “Black Art”?

In their works on geometry the Egyptians laid down “hardly any general rules of procedure.” Making constructions and determining areas seems to have been their strong points in geometry, the latter being necessitated by the yearly overflow of the Nile, which obliterated the boundaries of contiguous lands and forced the owners to perform frequent surveys. Ahmes gives the value of π as 3.1604, which is really a surprising approximation of our 3.1416. They appear to have been acquainted with the ratio 3, 4 and 5 in the construction of a right triangle. Diodorus, the Greek mathematician, says that, from the remotest antiquity, the Egyptian year was composed of 365 days and 6 hours, which, says the historian, Rollin, “was only 11 minutes short of what was requisite.” We now know that Rollin’s figures are out only a matter of 14 seconds; but they serve to show us the extraordinary precision of Egyptian methods.

Through the successful deciphering of the hieroglyphics by Champollion, Young and others, we now know the Egyptian system of notation. One (1) was represented by a vertical staff; it resembled our figure 1. Ten looked like a horseshoe, the curve being above. As the additive principle was recognized in writing these, three horseshoes and two staves meant 32. This is evidently a primitive application of the decimal system. They had developed also a system of fractions; but, though, as said before, the Babylonians had a constant denominator, 60, with a variable numerator, the Egyptians had, on the contrary, a constant numerator, 1, with a variable denominator. They had $\frac{1}{3}$, but could not conceive of $\frac{2}{3}$; $\frac{1}{5}$, but not $\frac{2}{5}$, $\frac{3}{5}$ or $\frac{4}{5}$. As a contrast, I may add that the early Romans had a constant denominator, 12, with a variable

numerator. Fractions offered great difficulties to the ancients; and, to demonstrate this, it is sufficient to say that, in order to express $\frac{2}{5}$, the Egyptians wrote $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{15}$ side by side, with no sign between them. The additive principle being applied, these two fractions equalled $\frac{2}{5}$.

The Egyptians seem to have ceased making any progress in mathematics at least 3,000 years ago, this state of stagnation being attributed to the fact that the results of mathematical research were inserted in the sacred books which, later on, it was considered a sacrilege and even heretical to alter in any manner.

GREECE.

We have now reached the brightest lights among the ancients: I refer to the Greeks. About the year 625 B.C., Psammeticus, one of the kings of Egypt, conquered the eleven other kings of that country with the aid of Greek pirates. Commercial intercourse was naturally soon established between the two countries; and Greek scholars, learning of the advanced state of science in Egypt, flocked to the land of the Pharaohs to become acquainted with the rich stores of knowledge possessed by the Egyptian priests. Thales, Pythagoras, Plato, and many others visited the land of the Nile, and Egyptian ideas were thus transplanted across the Mediterranean into Greece, where they stimulated thought, directing it into new channels and opening up new fields to its activity. Elementary Geometry was thus introduced into Greece; and "when the Hellenian philosophers applied their already highly cultivated minds to its study, this science made rapid headway along the path of progress." With the characteristic Greek spirit, so aptly described by Plato when he said: "Whatever we Greeks receive, we improve and perfect," they developed geometry to the point that its very name is that of one of their great geometers—Euclid.

To Thales, of Miletus, the Greeks are indebted for the introduction of geometry into their country. He studied in Egypt, and is said to have amazed King Amasis by measuring the height of the pyramids from their shadows. He is credited with the invention of the theorems on the equality of vertical angles, and of the angles at the base of an isosceles triangle, also the bisection of any circle by its diameter, and the congruence of two triangles having a side and two adjacent angles equal respectively. He applied this last

theorem to the measurement of the distance of a ship from shore. He also began the study of scientific astronomy, and acquired great fame by predicting a solar eclipse in 585 B.C.

To Anaxagoras, the pupil of one of Thales' pupils, is traced the first attempts at the quadrature of the circle. He amused himself at this while in prison for some unrecorded crime.

There were five successive schools of Greek mathematicians, viz.: The Ionic, to which Thales belonged (645-546 B.C.); Pythagorean (580-500); the Sophist (480-370); Platonic (431-404); First Alexandrian (338-146 B.C.), and the Second Alexandrian, which began with the Christian era.

During this period the Greeks made immense progress, laying down the principles of all modern work in that science. The brightest part, however, of it was that of the First Alexandrian School, during which flourished Plato, Aristotle, Euclid and Archimedes, those gigantic intellects whose light still illuminate the world. I shall not dwell upon Plato and Aristotle, as their line of thought did not lead them to the development of mathematical ideas, though Plato gave much time to the philosophy of Arithmetic. He, however, called calculation "a childish and vulgar art," which saying does not surprise us when we consider the system of Greek notation. Of Euclid we must say that research reveals that the greatest part of what appears in his *Elements* was not originated by him. But he was the most systematic of the mathematicians of his age; and, by a careful selection of materials gathered by him from the works of the various mathematicians who belonged to the schools enumerated above, and a logical arrangement of these materials, he left a great and lasting monument to his name. His *Elements of Geometry* have of late been severely criticized. He wrote other works, among them one on *Optics*, in which he lays down the principle that light proceeds from the eye and not from the object seen.

An idea of the importance of the work of Archimedes may be gathered from the following list of his extant books: 1, two books on *Equiponderance of Planes or Centres of Plane Gravities*, between which is inserted his treatise on the *Quadrature of the Parabola*; (2) two books on the *Sphere and Cylinder*; (3) the *Measurement of the Circle*; (4) *Treatise on Spirals*; (5) *Treatise on Conoids and Spheroids*; (6) *The Sand-Counter*; (7) two books on *Floating Bodies*; (8) *Fifteen Lemmas*.

As we have seen, the Greeks made great progress in geometry; on the contrary, however, they made but poor headway in arithmetic, the chief cause of which was their intricate notation. Like the Roman notation, the Greek was the alphabet, to each of the letters of which was ascribed a certain value. An idea of the difficulties of even a simple multiplication question may be obtained by giving the values 1, 2, 3, etc., to A, B, C, etc.; then setting down a multiplicand and a multiplier in these alphabetical symbols, multiplying them and expressing the product in the same symbols. After having done this, the reader will not be surprised that arithmetic made slow progress in Greece, nor that Plato called it "a childish and vulgar art."

THE EARLY ROMANS.

The early Romans, imitators in philosophy, in literature and art, did not even imitate in mathematics. The only Roman author of note in mathematics was Boethius, and even he originated nothing of value.

THE HINDOOS.

While the Greeks developed geometry or the science of *Form*, the Hindoos attached themselves to that of *Numbers*. Their chief attainment was that of solidly establishing the principle of place-value by their ingenious use of the zero to represent the absence of value. The invention of the zero is one of the most important events in the history of mathematical science, and probably has been one of the chief factors in the progress of all sciences within the last three or four centuries. The Hindoos evolved several important processes both in algebra and arithmetic, a highly progressive feature of their work being that, unlike the Greeks, they did not solve each problem individually, but rather invented general methods applicable to the solution of similar problems.

THE ARABS.

After their extraordinary military exploits in the 8th century, the Moors, who, for a time threatened to overrun Europe, settled down to a more civilized state of life. Strange as it may seem to us who know them as they are at the present day, these Moors were much given to intellectual advancement. They established universities in Cordova, Granada and Seville, in Spain, which they had conquered. To fill the positions of teachers, they invited Arab

scholars, who taught sciences, notably algebra, geometry and arithmetic. Their methods were partly Greek, partly Hindoo. Fortunately for the advancement of science generally throughout the world, the Hindoo methods prevailed in their teaching of arithmetic, and, as a result, our modern method of notation was firmly established in Europe, though it was not generally adopted till nearly five centuries after the arrival of these Arab teachers in Spain. It has been said that the Arabs were "learned but not original." Their chief title to glory is due to their having introduced the so-called Arabic Notation into Europe.

THE INTRODUCTION OF ARITHMETIC INTO EUROPE.

While the Mohammedans were thus progressing in the so-called worldly sciences, though all true science comes from God, the rest of Europe was firmly establishing Christianity within its borders, and, politically speaking, was in the melting-pot of civil wars, from which was to emerge the civilization so ruthlessly attacked in August, 1914, by the modern Hun. During these ceaseless conflicts, it is no matter for wonder that education gave way to military training, and was thus neglected. This condition of affairs is too often overlooked when speaking of the so-called Dark Ages.

Secular learning was not, however, wholly at a standstill, for we read that Charlemagne caused learning to flourish throughout his empire, establishing a system of parish schools, in which the parish priests or their vicars were, by law, obliged to instruct the children of the poor without any charge. (Drioux, Hist. of France.)

Charlemagne called about him the most famous scholars of Europe, among them being Alcuin, whose pupil he became. Alcuin directed Charlemagne's educational system, founding schools in the great sees and monasteries. Judging by our present standards, however, the mathematical work of Alcuin was of a very elementary character.

GERBERT.

A really great genius, however, was the monk, Gerbert (zharebare), born in Auvergne, France, who afterwards became Pope Sylvester II. He belongs to the 10th century. After studying theology, he went to Spain, where he studied mathematics, and, on his return, taught in Rheims, where he acquired great fame. Gerbert's pupils went even further than he had done in the spread of

mathematical science. Among them was Athelard of Bath, an English monk, who, disguising himself as a Mohammedan student, obtained entrance into the Moorish university of Cordova in 1120, made a copy of Euclid's Elements, and carried it out with him. This copy is said to have been the model of all editions of Euclid till 1533.

LEONARDO OF PISA.

At the beginning of the 12th century, the Hindoo system of notation, that is, our Arabic system, had partly supplanted the cumbrous Roman system. It was left to Leonardo of Pisa, recognized as the greatest mathematician of the 13th century, to firmly establish the Arabic System, through the diffusion of his great book, "*Liber Abaci*."

"The Italians," says Peacock in his "*Encyclopædia of Pure Mathematics*, London, 1847," "were in familiar possession of commercial arithmetic long before the other nations of Europe." To them we are indebted for the Rule of Three, Loss and Gain, Fellowship (Partnership), Exchange, Simple and Compound Interest, Discount, etc.

The rest of the space at my disposal will not permit me to give more than the names of famous mathematicians who lived from the 12th century till our own times. By consulting the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, the reader may obtain the list of the works written by these men whose light will forever shine upon the pathway of science. Among the most notable names are the following:—

Nicole Oresme, a Norman bishop, who wrote on fractional powers; Jordanus Nemorarius, a German monk, who treated of the properties of numbers, in 1496; Albertus Magnus; George Purbeck; Roger Bacon, the celebrated English monk; Lucas Pacioli, who, in 1494, published his "*Summa de Arithmetica, Geometria, Proportionione et Proportionalita*"; Sir John Billingsley, who, with the aid of John Dee, made the first English translation of Euclid's Elements from manuscripts just brought into Europe by Greek refugees, who fled their country after the fall of Constantinople into the hands of the Turks, in 1453; Regiomontanus, Bishop of Ratisbonne, who revived the study of trigonometry; Copernicus, Canon of Frauenburg Cathedral, in Germany, famous as the author of the theory on the solar system; Nicolas Cusa, Cardinal-Bishop of Brixen in the Tyrol, who, one hundred years before Copernicus,

taught that the earth went around the sun; Galileo, during whose trial for heresy the Copernican theory was denounced as false, since it apparently contradicted the Bible, this being one hundred years after the death of Copernicus who, consequently, could not have been excommunicated for his teachings on this point, as is so often asserted; Tycho Brahe; Tartaglia; Cardan; Francis Vieta, who introduced the plus and minus signs; Rahn, who first made use of the sign of division, and Robert Recorde, that of equality; Lillius Clavius, a Jesuit, who rectified the calendar; Kepler, the famous astronomer; John Napier, Baron of Merchiston, who invented logarithms; Simon Stevin, a Belgian, the inventor of decimal fractions, which are at the base of all modern scientific progress; Pascal, Newton, Euler, Leibnitz, Descartes, Laplace, Lagrange (said to be the greatest mathematician since the time of Thales), Kant, Swedenborg, Oughtred, Cavalieri, Pierre de Fermat, Wallis, Huygens, the Bernouilli, McLaurin, de Moivre, Clairaut, all of whom, and many others, have contributed without measure to the development of this noble science, and thus given to humanity powers undreamed of when mathematics first took their rise on the banks of the Tigris and the Euphrates in the early dawn of history.

CIVICS.

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The teaching of Civics in our schools and colleges is acknowledged to be a necessity if our young people are to have a true conception of the duties and responsibilities involved in citizenship. While the subject has a place on the school curriculum, it is too often given but scant attention and made to take second place to subjects that are erroneously considered of greater importance. As the conscientious teacher will not wilfully neglect the teaching of a subject of great ethical value, it may be well to discuss briefly the importance of Civics. We may perhaps epitomize the value thus: By the teaching of Civics we educate the rising generation as to:—

- (a) Good manners, politeness, etc.
- (b) Best forms of government—Democracy vs. Autocracy.
- (c) Justification of taxation—systems of taxation.
- (d) How far the State is justified in controlling or restricting personal liberty.
- (e) The Franchise—a sacred trust. The responsibility of exercising it. The responsibility of using it to promote the best interests of the State.
- (f) The call to give the State or Municipality personal service. How often we hear the lament that the best people will not enter into what is designated public life or service!

While the foregoing six topics might be amplified and emphasized, we think the mere mention of them is sufficient to establish the importance of the teaching of Civics.

Granted the importance of the subject, may we not very properly proceed to define it more fully, and indicate some of the chief aims to be kept in view in its teaching. The following may be considered a good definition: "Civics is a training in habits of good citizenship as well as a study of government forms and machinery." Putting this in the form of an equation, we have:

Civics=Training in citizenship+Knowledge of forms of government and machinery.

It is at once very evident that the "training in citizenship" is the important element, while the rest is a bit of technical knowledge of minor value, but not unimportant.

1. *What Are the Immediate Aims in Teaching Civics?*

To lead the child to understand that he is now, and more definitely later, a member of several groups—Family—School—Sunday School—Church—Municipality—Province—Dominion—Empire; and to realize the responsibility involved in each membership.

A better appreciation of our duty to any organization of which we are members sometimes comes when we pause to ask ourselves "What kind of a church, society, etc., would this church, society, etc., be if all of its members were just like I am?" This is a very helpful question for a pupil to ask himself or herself regarding his class or school.

2. *Another Aid in Teaching Civics.*

To create or at least awaken and stimulate motives that will lead to the formation of habits of order, cleanliness, willing and hearty co-operation, obedience to law, and sympathetic, altruistic service. In reaching this high and most desirable aim, we develop those qualities of head and heart that make for success—true success—not merely material success, but service.

3. *A Third Aim in Teaching Civics.*

To emphasize the interdependence of the welfare of the individual and the welfare of the home and community. Rules, Regulations and Laws are based on the principle of the good of the community. No one can live unto himself. In many ways we are our brother's keeper. When this is realized fully, conflicting interests reach a settlement on the basis of the greatest good to the greatest number.

4. *A Fourth Aim in Teaching Civics.*

To develop loyalty and patriotic sentiment and political intelligence, and to instruct the young citizen to practise it.

Loyalty is too often used in a very restricted sense. One naturally thinks of loyalty to King and Country, but should not the youth be imbued with the thought that there should be loyalty to the home, the school, the municipality? When pupils are obsessed with the full meaning of the terms, "Our Class," "Our

School," there follows a splendid co-operation that produces magnificent achievement. The same is true in sports and the spirit engendered by "team" play is a valuable life-asset and constitutes a great argument for the practice of athletics. How this training paves the way for true devotion to, and sacrifice for, "Our Country," "Our Empire"!

A development of political intelligence will lead to more independent thinking. Blessed are the people who no longer allow a few leaders to do their thinking for them. When the electorate show determination to have representatives who will be bold in their advocacy of Right and uncompromising in their opposition to Wrong, a higher ideal of statesmanship will inevitably follow.

Having indicated some of the aims to be kept in view in teaching Civics it may be well to suggest some reasons for concluding that greater attention should be given the subject in the future.

1. The war will bring changed conditions. The men who survive the struggle, having endured great hardships and suffering in their defence of their country and the liberty of its citizens, will exact a high standard of statesmanship of those who aspire to manage its affairs and make its laws.

2. There will henceforth be more independence—a less slavish adherence to party. Partizanship will lose its power in proportion to the increase of knowledge regarding one's duty to the State.

3. Great problems will demand solution:

- (a) Improvement of social conditions.
- (b) Custodial care, with the most helpful environment, of those whose low mentality makes their freedom a menace to the State.
- (c) Relation of Labor and Capital.
- (d) Conservation of National Resources.
- (e) State or Municipal ownership of all public utilities.
- (f) National and Provincial control of natural wealth.

When our legislators grapple with these problems, so vital to the best life of any community, dealing with them intelligently, honestly and fearlessly, with a single aim to make the conditions of life the best possible for the toiling masses, they should have the support of an intelligent electorate.

4. The practical will supersede the theoretical. This is becoming more and more manifest.

5. There will be less tolerance of greed and graft and a greater demand for integrity in those who seek the suffrages of the people.

6. Woman's influence will be greatly enhanced.

(a) Through her splendid work for the war.

(b) Through her enlarged sphere of activities.

(c) Through the possession of the franchise.

Having thus outlined the object and purpose of Civics as a school-study; its vital bearing on the practicalities of life; the necessity of its teaching to insure an intelligent electorate; and the greater demand there will be, through changed world-conditions and the growing tendency to democracy, we commend the subject to the earnest consideration of all who are responsible for giving the rising generation—our future rulers—the best education and training to qualify for the highest type of citizenship.

TRAINING SECTION.

THE STUDENT IN THE PRACTICE TEACHING SCHOOL.

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In studying the relation of the student-teacher to the practice-teaching school, two general questions present themselves for consideration:

First.—Is the practice-teaching school doing for the student all that is possible?

Second.—Is the student obtaining from the school and the opportunities it affords as much as may be reasonably expected?

The first question involves the school, its organization and the spirit of the critic-teacher. The second involves the student, his power to interpret and assimilate, his ambition and his conception of the importance and function of the school.

There are at least four points at which the practice-school exerts its shaping influence on the student-teacher, namely, in the demonstration of the principles of methodology in the observation lesson; in furnishing opportunities for the application and development of these principles in the teaching lesson; in affording facilities for acquaintance with general school administration and routine; in furnishing for the teacher-in-training an abiding inspiration.

There is some difference of opinion both as to the value of the observation lessons and the time at which they should be conducted. An investigation recently conducted in some of the Normal Schools of United States led to the conclusion that the observation lesson was generally considered of much less importance than the teaching lesson. Some schools frankly stated that they took no stock in observation teaching, and the time devoted to this varied all the way from nothing to one hundred and twenty periods in a course of two years' duration. Three methods of conducting the observation work were found to be in vogue: All the observation first, followed by the practice-teaching; observation, followed by combined teaching and observation, similar to the practice in this Province; observation, teaching and observation, and then observation continued.

There is no doubt as to the value of the last period of observation. As a result of her own efforts at teaching, the student learns the need and the process of observation.

Just as in its situation, construction and equipment the practice-school should illustrate the ideal to be attained, so in the teaching there should be set forth the detailed organization of each subject of the school course and the proper method of presentation. The observation lesson should be normal in time, matter, presentation and correlation. "What do you consider the greatest weakness of the students coming from our provincial training schools?" was recently asked of an inspector of long experience. "The ability to teach a short lesson," was the immediate answer. This is serious when one considers that the greater number of the students are of necessity required to do this very thing, and yet it is not surprising when it is recalled that with the exception of the primary grades, the assignments run into half-an-hour, and the observation lesson takes anywhere from half-an-hour to fifty minutes, and there are on record lessons of even greater duration.

The matter should be a related portion of the prescribed course for the grade, reasonably and judiciously amplified, and not some pet theme of the critic-teacher, greatly elaborated and used to show the grasp of the class or the range of the teacher.

The presentation should be rational, free from fad, and in accord with the methodology of the departmental masters of the Training School. Disagreement along these lines leads to perplexity and uncertainty on the part of the student.

The question of correlation is exceedingly difficult of solution. The period of observation is so brief that the student sees but a fragment. How a literature lesson furnishes later a reading lesson or grows out of a nature study lesson, or suggests a history lesson or a subject for composition, she has but little chance to observe. This might be remedied by a longer period in the same grade with the same critic-teacher.

What should the student observe?

Observation seems to be largely confined to matter and presentation, and this may be enough in the first stages, but as time goes on, the observation should be much more comprehensive.

Concerning the lesson, the student should observe the purpose of the lesson, the particular power which the lesson is intended to

develop, and its adaptability to the class. She should observe the form of the questions, the management of the class and the maintenance of interest. It is quite a conservative estimate to say that ninety per cent. of the students make no attempt to manage the class. The willing pupils receive the questions. She should study the class, the strong pupils and the weak pupils, and how these are dealt with. She should note the use (if any) made of text-books. While the ability to use the text-book to advantage is very necessary, it is especially true of the teachers who qualify at the Normal Schools. They go largely to the country schools, and their pupils must be taught the art of acquiring information from the printed page. She should observe the responsive effort of the class, and strive to determine the factors producing activity, or the lack of activity.

How much are the students getting from the observation lessons? This is, of course, exceedingly difficult to estimate. The following question was propounded to the department masters of one of our training schools: How many students who report on the observation lessons make seventy-five per cent.? Without hesitation the answer flashed back: "None!" This is, perhaps, fairly sweeping, but it shows at any rate that there is much to be desired.

It has been the custom in the Toronto Normal Model School to conduct two observation lessons for the section on the same afternoon, but only one lesson is reported. Some subjects are more difficult to report upon than others—for example, reading and the criticism of composition. These subjects are frequently chosen for the lesson not reported, and it is upon these subjects that the students make their poorest first attempts. This naturally leads to the question: How much value has an observation lesson that is neither reported nor discussed?

The regulations call for forty observation lessons for each teacher in training, but when these are taken in conjunction with the teaching lessons, owing to the scant time allowed for criticism, little reference can be made to the demonstration lesson.

In order to ascertain something of the value of these lessons, a questionnaire was conducted under the following conditions:—

(a) Students especially sent in to observe, but from whom no report was expected.

(b) Students following the regular course of observing and warned that a report would be expected.

(c) Students following the regular course of observing and not warned that a report would be expected.

(d) Students following the regular course of observing, and not warned that a report would be expected, and then asked to report two days later.

In the first test four questions were submitted:—

1. What was the general subject of the lesson?
2. What particular part of the general subject was taught?
3. What was the matter taught?
4. What method was employed?

Thirteen students returned answers; two answered four correctly; four answered three correctly; four answered two correctly; three answered one correctly. An average of two and five-thirteenths questions each out of four, or an average of about sixty per cent.

In the second case, where the students were warned, eleven students submitted answers to the following question, based on a grammar review: "Name the points reviewed." Four answered the total four points correctly; three answered three points correctly; two answered two points correctly; two answered one point correctly (an average of two and nine-elevenths, or a trifle over seventy per cent.). Somewhat better than the first, arising, no doubt, from the fact that the students had been warned.

In the third test, where the students were following the regular course and not warned, eight students were tested, four in each of two rooms, on four questions similar to the first group. Two answered four questions; one answered three questions; five answered two questions; an average of two and five-eighths, or about sixty-five per cent.

A last test was made with six students, in the subject of composition, two days after the lesson was taught, the questions being similar to those of one and three. Two answered three out of four correctly; one answered two out of four correctly; three answered one out of four correctly; an average of one and two-thirds, or about forty-six per cent. An examination of the answers showed that the subject and the critic-teacher had a bearing on the answers.

These results are not particularly satisfactory, especially when the simplicity of the questions is considered, and the additional fact that the students had been in training for a period of at least four months.

From the standpoint of the practice-teaching school, it is essential that every lesson taught by the student should be the best possible. For the students, it may be said that they are earnest, conscientious, and their plans show hours of patient labor, but not infrequently the results obtained are out of proportion to the effort expended.

The lesson itself is frequently an isolated point. In methodology the student has not advanced sufficiently to attack the subject with confidence and skill, and in the review of the subject matter he has not had time to reorganize along the comprehensive lines required in efficient teaching. The student has no opportunity to follow up his lesson, to have it reproduced, or to test to ascertain how much or how little has been assimilated. These difficulties are unavoidable; all one can hope to do is to reduce them to a minimum.

So far as possible, the demonstration lesson should indicate the method to be used by the student in dealing with her assignment in that division. The practice-teaching school should keep in touch with the work as taken in the lectures by the students, and, so far as possible, assign the work being taken at the time. This is not always possible. In the Toronto Normal Model, through a closer co-ordination with the science department, an improvement has been effected, and the critic-teachers report much more satisfactory results from every standpoint in elementary science, nature study and agriculture.

The regulations require a minimum of twenty teaching lessons for A students, and twenty-five for B students, and more where necessary. There are individual cases where extra lessons would prove of great value. If the student shows that she has not yet grasped the proper method of presentation in a subject, why should not the critic-teacher, after consultation with the department master concerned, recall the student for extra periods of observation and teaching. This should not interfere seriously with the lecture work.

The present organization, which requires the students to remain in the same grade for a month's work in observation and teaching, should prove advantageous, especially if the groups remain in the same rooms during the entire period. By this arrangement the student assumes something of the character of an apprentice teacher. She is given an opportunity to observe the teaching and correlation of every subject on the course. She might, with the assistance of

the critic-teacher, organize a related group of lessons, follow them up by review and testing, and by examining and returning exercises. This more completely organized form of the work is not possible where the students observe a lesson and teach a lesson, and then pass on to another room in the same grade.

One of the students recently complained that he was receiving lectures in primary arithmetic, while his assignment asked him to teach a difficult point in decimals. Since the lectures must be repeated in the Normal School, why may the students not receive the lectures according to the grade in which they are teaching, except in science and the science of education?

Are interruptions on the part of the department master or the critic-teacher helpful to the student-teacher? This depends upon the temperament of the student, but generally critical interruptions are not helpful. The student is prepared to follow a certain method of procedure, and she cannot immediately and effectually change. She feels the very foundations slipping from beneath her feet. It is common knowledge among critic-teachers that the presence of a department master not infrequently has a seriously depressing influence upon the teaching power of the student. She loses confidence in herself, and her nervousness becomes much more manifest. A correction or an interruption under such circumstances brings a sense of humiliation, and particularly so when an extremely self-conscious young girl is teaching a class of rather large boys. Nothing should be done to cheapen the student-teacher in the eyes of the class. In criticism, principles should receive attention, and the spirit of encouragement should prevail. Every effort should be made to enable the student to teach as effectively as possible. The aim is not merely to place a value on the lesson nor to show her how badly she has performed, but to enable the student to develop teaching ability.

The teacher-in-training has but little opportunity to become acquainted with the business of the school, its organization, equipment, methods of keeping records and the use to be made of the records, nor with methods of developing and maintaining discipline. When the student comes into the practice-teaching school, she should be there before school is assembled—some consultation with the critic-teacher may be necessary—and she should remain until the work for the day is done. She should be regarded as an organic

part of the room, and not merely a guest or a tolerated spectator. Of course, this phase of school work is fully discussed in the lectures on school management, but to see school management skilfully applied must prove not less helpful than the lectures upon the subject.

In the last analysis, the real things of life are the intangible things. The inspirations we receive and the ideals implanted are the influences which prompt us to effort and efficiency. Not the least value of the practice-teaching school is its inspirational function. Long after a particular lesson and a particular method have passed from memory, the personality of the critic-teacher and the attitude of the class will continue to furnish an ideal. Above all things, the critic-teacher should be free from artificiality, and should maintain a natural and sympathetic enthusiasm which encourages effort. There should always be evidence that behind the lesson, however brilliantly taught, stands the pupil and his welfare. On the part of the class there should be exhibited a natural confidence, freedom and respect, and a readiness to take part. It has been asserted that practice-teaching schools exist for the larger training institution of which they form a part. This is an indisputable statement, but it must always be borne in mind that whatever interruptions may be necessary in the work of the school to meet the requirements of the students and the lecturers, these interruptions should be made with the greatest consideration. An efficient practice-teaching school is one of the greatest assets of the training school.

Perhaps, in closing, a few generalizations may be permitted. Observation lessons should be normal, not show lessons.

Either discussion or report is necessary to make the observation lesson effective.

That some more definite organization of the demonstration course would prove of value.

Teaching lessons should be designed to give a more comprehensive view of the correlation of the subjects of each grade.

The closest possible co-ordination with the other departments of the training school should be maintained.

The connection of the student with the room in which she is teaching should be made as organic as possible.

A handbook containing suggestions and directions on every phase of the student's connection with the practice-teaching school should be issued to each incoming class.

A TWENTIETH CENTURY GRAMMAR.

ANDREW STEVENSON, M.A., LONDON NORMAL SCHOOL.

(“*Nihil infelicius grammatico definitore.*” Scaliger, 1540-1609.)

English Grammar as a subject of study is now clearly on the defensive. It looks as if it must justify itself or go. The many virtues that have been attributed to the study by teachers and textbook writers do not seem to have been realized in practice, or at least not realized to an extent to justify the time and energy that have been spent on the subject.

Nevertheless it is legitimate to maintain that English Grammar has various notable values. It is useful as a preparation for the study of foreign languages, for the interpretation of literature, as an aid to judgment in oral reading, and to the attainment of clearness and force of expression in English composition, whether oral or written. Moreover, when the subject has been properly presented, it seems reasonable to suppose, in spite of assertions to the contrary, that English Grammar has certain formal values as a training in accurate observation, accurate modes of classification, comparison and reasoning, and accurate statement based on this observation and reasoning.

That these important results have not been generally obtained from the study of English Grammar is not due to the nature of the subject in itself but rather to faults in the mode of presentation by textbook writers and teachers.

The history of the production of textbooks in English Grammar is the melancholy history of a series of renewals of the old fatuous and futile attempt to put new wine into old bottles. Though English is a living, analytic, comparatively uninflected language, grammarians as a class have insisted upon trying to force it into the rigid moulds of definition and rule that were made for a dead, synthetic, inflected language. And even in the exceptional case where an author goes through the motions of developing his principles inductively, he really starts out by accepting the old dogmatic conclusions and then selects only such facts or imaginations as would seem to give support to these conclusions.

English Grammar as a subject of study was not introduced in

England until the Tudor period, and even then, and for long after, only in a slight measure. Lilly's Latin grammar had been revised and prescribed in 1543. John Colet wrote an introduction to Lilly's book, which introduction has been called the first English grammar. But truly it was not, properly speaking, an English grammar at all, but merely a translation into English of the elements of Latin grammar, and was designed only to aid the pupil in the acquisition of Latin. This book was the standard text in England for nearly two hundred years. There is a quaint comment in this book which has some application in later times. "The varietie of teaching of grammar is divers yet, and always will be, for that every scholemaister liketh that he knoweth, and seeth not the use of that he knoweth not."

In 1712 Richard Steele wrote a grammar in which he attempted to make the acquisition of grammatical rules more easy by expressing them in rhymes more or less forced and fantastic. In 1767 Bishop Lowth published a grammar which was notable in various respects. He defined grammar as an art, and gave a number of examples of false syntax to be corrected. This book was the basis of Murray's work, issued thirty years thereafter, and for the textbooks of the host of Murray's followers and imitators.

Dr. Lowth's dogmatic attitude may be inferred from his statement that "no authority, not even that of Shakespeare and Milton, is sufficient to justify" what he is pleased to call solecisms. But the author's dogmatism does not keep him from looseness and inaccuracy and even absurdity of statement—a fault in which he has been too faithfully followed by many of his successors. Two examples are here appended from the "new corrected edition" of 1774.

"An adjective is a word added to a substantive to express its quality."

"When the verb is a Passive, the thing acted upon is in the Nominative Case."

In 1786 appeared "The Diversions of Purley" in two large volumes, by Horne Tooke. This seems to have been the first serious attempt at a philosophic and scientific investigation of the English language. The writer quotes copiously from Anglo-Saxon and Early English as a basis for his conclusions, and, though his theories are not always sound, he deserved great credit for his mode of

procedure. Tooke felt called upon to undertake this work because of the unscientific character of the books previously published on the subject. He says, "Men easily take upon trust, are easily satisfied with and repeat confidently after others false explanations of things they do not understand."

In the year 1823 appeared the first edition of Kirkham's grammar—a work put forth as an improvement on Murray's grammar, and laying great stress on parsing and on the correction of errors. This book was an immense success, so far as popularity indicates success. There lies before me a copy of the "Third Canadian Edition, from the Sixtieth American Edition." This volume is bound in leather and was printed and published in Toronto in the year 1853. In spite of the number of editions issued, Kirkham's grammar left many things to be desired, some of which were accuracy in definitions and rules, as may be gathered from the following statements:

"A noun in the possessive case is governed by the noun which it possesses."

"An active verb is transitive when the action passes over from the subject or nominative to an object."

"The noun governed by a transitive verb is the object of an action."

"The nominative does something; the objective has something done to it."

"The nominative is the actor or subject, and the active verb is the action performed by the nominative."

The fact that school teachers all over Canada and the United States kept on for fifty years teaching such unmitigated nonsense as this merely shows what a docile and easily satisfied set of persons many school teachers are.

Lennie's grammar was partly contemporary with Kirkham's and was like it in the stress laid on parsing and the correction of false syntax. One feature of Lennie's work, and Kirkham's also, that could not be forgotten by those who were the victims of it, was the lists of prepositions, conjunctions and adverbs that were to be memorized, by sheer main strength, to serve as a basis for parsing. How little mental development was got out of such parsing may be known by considering, for instance, that we parsed the word

“so,” wherever we saw it, as an adverb, because it was classed as such in the memorized list of adverbs.

After Lennie’s and Kirkham’s, our Ontario schools used the public and high school texts by Dr. Davies, which were based on Bullion’s work, and were as faulty as their original.

A new era set in with the publication in England of Green’s English Grammar,” and in the United States, of Whitney’s “Essentials of English Grammar.” The latter work was the basis of Dr. Seath’s High School Grammar.

In spite of the advance made towards a more scientific treatment in later books, including the present Ontario High School Grammar, many of the old absurdities still survive, both in print and in teaching. It seems necessary to point out some of these which should not be allowed to appear in any future text-book and should not be continued in teaching.

It is obviously absurd to speak of Case in English as “an inflection of nouns and pronouns.” Most pronouns are not inflected to show the case relations, and of the nouns none show by inflection any function or relation except the possessive. Many nouns, indeed probably most nouns, are not inflected, even for the possessive.

A similar objection holds against treating Mood as a matter of inflection. In the following sentences the word “write,” without any inflection whatever, is considered as of the Indicative, the Subjunctive, and the Imperative Moods, respectively: “You write well. If you write me at all, write regularly.”

Some text-book writers define the Indicative Mood as “the form of the verb which shows that the speaker views his assertion as [representing] a fact.” This is, of course, absurd. It would be convenient, indeed, if liars were compelled to use a special form of the verb for their utterances, but so far these gentlemen have escaped that compulsion.

The predicate does not “make an assertion about the subject.” The assertion is made about the person or thing denoted by the subject, and the predicate alone does not serve to make the assertion, for the assertion includes the subject as well as the predicate.

It is not a correct definition of a transitive verb to say that it is one that “denotes an action that is directed towards an object.” In the sentence “She plays well,” the action of playing must be

directed towards an object, as a piano, though, of course, the verb "plays" as used here is not transitive.

It is not correct to say that "the object of a verb is a word or group of words denoting the person or thing affected by the action expressed by the verb." In the sentence "I hear the thunder," the word "thunder" is the object of the verb "hear," but the thunder itself is not "affected" by my hearing it. Moreover, when the passive form of the transitive verb is used this definition is even less applicable.

It is absurd to speak of a verb as "agreeing with its subject in number and person" except where there is an inflection or other special form to constitute such agreement. In dealing with the past tense of the verb "move," for instance, how can we speak of agreement in any instance, since the form "moved" is used throughout? Moreover, it answers every useful purpose in parsing a verb merely to conclude with—not "agreeing with its subject so and so," but "having for its subject so and so," not mentioning person or number at all, except where there are inflections or other special forms for these.

Some writers of text-books, in presenting the conjugation of verbs, give only "thou" forms in the second person singular. Could there be anything more unreasonable and unscientific than such a presentation of the archaic and exceptional form as if it were not only the standard form but the only form?

It seems absurd to say in parsing that this, that or the other word is "understood." As a matter of fact such word is generally not understood except by the grammatical pedant. In parsing the imperative verb, for instance, it accords with the usual fact to say that the subject is "omitted" or "unexpressed," and it can easily be shown why it is omitted in the given case, and inserted in other cases.

Since in the English language the grammatical names of words are determined by their use, it is absurd to speak, for instance, of "an adjective used as a noun." One might as well speak of a Scotchman as used as an Orangeman, whenever a man of that nationality joined the Orange Lodge.

The writer of a "Twentieth Century Grammar" should show the great importance in an English sentence of position instead of

inflection in indicating the function and relation of words. He should also recognize the simple fact that, in everyday English, in Canada and the United States at least, the idea of simple futurity in connection with the verb is commonly shown periphrastically by the use of a progressive form of the verb "go" as the auxiliary, instead of by "shall" or "will." Moreover, the English language should be presented in such a text-book as a living, growing organism, living by change and improving by change. Such treatment would in time do away with the opposition to certain tendencies to change and improvement which still manifest themselves, as, for example, the tendency to drop the forms "whom" and "doesn't," the retention of which serves no good end whatever. Such treatment would also prepare the way for the introduction of a rational system of spelling. Finally, even an elementary text-book on English Grammar might well include an inductive presentation of a few of the simplest and most interesting facts and principles connected with word derivation and versification.

TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

E. H. WICKWARE, D.D.S., SMITH'S FALLS.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—I wish to express to you my appreciation of the honor you have conferred upon me in electing me to the first office in our Department. I fully appreciate the honor, also the responsibilities coincident with it. I wish to extend greetings to those members who are here again, who have been here so often, laboring for the grand cause of Education in Ontario.

I am glad to see these stalwarts again with us, and at the same time I wish to welcome the new members, and trust they will become so interested in the meetings and enjoy the sessions to such an extent that they will return at successive Conventions, lending their heart and brain to a cause which will be greatly enriched thereby.

The possibilities of this Section—and I personally esteem it the most important of the O.E.A.—are illimitable. We have set out toward the same goal. On the way many difficulties and obstacles beset our pathway, which must be surmounted, but the manner of overcoming these varies according to the temperament of the individual, and this meeting, in open session, yearly, at Eastertide, I take it, is for the express purpose of interchange of ideas, that the weaker may gain from the experience of the stronger, that the younger may learn from his elders of maturer judgment. Therefore, to render the meeting as serviceable as possible to all, it is necessary that all members, new and old, should feel a perfect freedom to take part in discussions, remembering that the obstacles encountered during the year by the individual members are to a large extent the same or similar, and great benefit may accrue to us all as different persons view the subject from as many tangents, according as it appeals to them as individuals. Gentlemen, you have not done your duty to yourself or your Board if you return without having your particular complaint or difficulty laid before the Convention.

At our last session a Resolution was passed, moved by Mr. Laughton, seconded by Mr. Bell, "Resolved that, beginning with this meeting and in future, the representatives of town and city schools be so organized that one session of the Annual Meeting be set apart and the programme arranged for discussion of such topics as concern them only." I admit that, in the preparation of the programme, I spent a great deal of thought over this resolution. However, I have tried to abide by the spirit of it, and whether or not I have been successful the programme will show. Personally, I am interested in every branch of education, and it seems to me almost impossible to dissociate any branches whose ramifications have no influence on other branches. I mention this subject in passing as very recently I received a letter regarding the division of the Section and no doubt you will have this subject brought up for discussion at this Convention.

Another year has gone, another milestone passed, and this finds us in the third year of the great war which has convulsed the world. While we had hoped in our last session that, ere we met again, the war would have been over, peace would have dawned, with reconstruction the order of the day, yet we are thankful for the success that has attended the arms of the Allies, and believing that Right will prevail and that we have on our side the approbation of Divine Providence in a conflict, which has not been of our making, is just and is not selfish, we have the profoundest confidence in the ultimate outcome. God speed the day.

It is not my purpose to review, in the short time at my disposal, the History of Education, or to give you a summary of Educational statistics. On the contrary, I wish to be as practical as possible in my address to you and shall confine my remarks chiefly to a criticism of present conditions, and shall endeavor to point out to you improvements that, from my viewpoint, could readily be made in our system. Should I, in your opinion, become too critical, or too radical in my views, I trust you will pardon it and lay it at the door of one who is perhaps overzealous or over-ambitious for our children.

To us assembled at this time, we should, in a measure at least, take inventory of ourselves and our system. I am not given greatly to consider the past—that is gone—but a mental survey of the past is often helpful that mistakes do not recur. The opinion is often

expressed that present-day educationalists are forever experimenting without getting anywhere; that our efforts to meet conditions are largely futile. This situation obtains because it must be admitted there is much to criticize in our system of education. Not all the present ills are due, however, to those who are experimenting in order to find improved methods with which to secure better results. Many faults are attributable to the failure of a previous generation of educators to foresee coming needs. These men were in no way to blame. They did their best, as we are doing ours; but errors of the past should not be laid to the efforts of the present. Times do change and times have changed, and the present is valuable to us, therefore, that we may prepare for the future, for at no time, in my opinion, has a Section such as ours had a grander opportunity to exert a great influence in this Province than at the present. While it is the duty of the Nation to prosecute the war to a successful issue, it appears to me to be our duty to consider, above all else, after-war conditions and prepare to meet them.

“Opportunity waits upon ability.

Success upon effort.”

Let us put forth the effort.

The only persons unconvinced that times have changed are those ultra-conservatives who still believe that Latin and Algebra will help the children of the ever-present poor to solve problems dependent upon the high cost of living.

The rise of cities has deprived thousands of children of their inheritance in the way of contact with nature, of sense-training, and of normal living. The growth of tenement and apartment-house life has almost entirely removed children's opportunities to become interested in educative home tasks. The factory system has eliminated general industrial training through the establishment of the stultifying one-piece-per-man or piecework organization. Thus the schools have thrust upon them the duty of supplying all the stimuli to development which country life, home activity and a demand for general skill formerly provided. Add to this condition an indifference in the pupil, a reason for which I shall endeavor to show, and a large influx of foreign population due to immigration which we expect will obtain, and we have a further state of complication.

Milton said, "I call that a complete and generous education which fits a man to fulfil all the duties of private or civic life which may devolve upon him," and though enunciated years ago, it is as true to-day. It is well to ask ourselves just what the schools are expected to produce.

The boys and girls whom the schools send out must be equipped for self-support and intellectual growth. They must be able to cope with industrial and living conditions as they are, be qualified and ready to serve the common good, be refined by a degree of culture and good taste, and endowed with the fundamentals of a strong and honorable character.

The tools given our pupils in the past, namely the traditional studies inherited from a previous generation, fail to meet the needs of our new material or to produce the desired result. We must, therefore, adopt new tools or find new ways of using the old ones. We look to Manual and Domestic courses in our Public and High schools, Technical and Industrial schools, to fit the ever-growing proportion of the young people to support and care for themselves. Through Music, Drawing and Nature Study we hope to increase the Nation's capacity for enjoyment of life.

While granting the importance and claim of the newer branches of education, you will probably say that the curriculum is already overcrowded, and how can it be loaded up with more subjects? This is true. Reorganization and reconstruction must begin here in our Public Schools as well as in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes.

In my opinion, we have already too many subjects, or at least too much of these subjects; and in making the latter observation I do not wish to leave the impression that a smattering of knowledge of a subject will suffice; on the contrary, I believe in thoroughness. A place must be found for Technical Education, and this can only be done by reconstruction of the curriculum. Let us consider briefly what the curriculum now demands of us. For example, a fourth book pupil preparing for the Entrance Examination. Twelve compulsory subjects, namely: Arithmetic, Literature, Grammar, Geography, History, Spelling, Composition, Writing, Reading, Nature Study, Hygiene, Art.

Geography—entire world; Grammar—cover to cover; History

—entire English history; Literature—page 204 to end of Reader, as well as Fourth Golden Rule Book, Dog of Flanders, Christmas Carol, Traveller and Deserted Village for supplementary reading. I consider the above course of study for a pupil of from 11 to 14 years entirely too much as well as too heavy, if we would wish to produce “a sound mind in a sound body.” Add to this vocational training, and you will surely agree that we must call a halt and demand reconsideration and reconstruction. I venture the assertion that if the opinion of those in charge of Entrance classes were taken, they would agree with my observations, and would also agree that such selections as the Traveller and the Deserted Village should have no place in the Public School curriculum.

Of all the waste of this war, the greatest by far is the waste of human life. The greatest asset of any country is human life. We are proud of past educational attainments of the Province of Ontario. We are proud of the way Ontario has conscripted the mentality of the Province by compulsory education from 8 to 14 years; and while we evince just pride we must submit that the wastage of war has placed a greater responsibility on us than ever before—that of nurturing, cultivating, and conserving the mind and life of the child and preparing that individual for Canadian citizenship.

Our schools of the future then must be so conducted that a human life should not be endangered; rather, it should be protected. Our buildings should be fitted with the most modern devices to secure proper sanitation and ventilation, that the health of the pupil be carefully guarded. The pupil should not be overworked, and proper and spacious playgrounds should be provided. Parenthetically, let me say, do not be misled by the popular cry to give up your playgrounds to raise potatoes, turnips, etc., however commendable this project may be. Your playgrounds are worth more to you and to the Empire to redden the corpuseles in the arteries of your pupils, the hope of the Nation, than the transitory value of a few bushels of vegetable products. Cultivate the vacant lots, the lanes and byways; but spare to the children their recreation plot.

Medical and Dental Inspection should not only be permissible, as at present, but the Act should make it compulsory. Why should a child, physically well, by virtue of compulsory attendance at school, be subjected and exposed to disease, the forerunner of misery, if not death, when we acknowledge the value of a human life? Why

should dollars be considered when health and life are at stake? None but medically fit children should, in my opinion, be admitted to our schools, and for the others the Government should supply a means of education. Indeed, I will go further and state, and state from a working experience with the system, that Sunday Schools ought in this regard to be brought under the Act with day schools, and none but medically fit should be allowed admission to Sunday Schools. I state advisedly and authoratively that much of the good work of Medical Inspection of the day school is undone by the Sunday School and the moving-picture playhouse, both of which welcome with open arms children afflicted with exanthematous and other infectious diseases in varying stages of development.

Gentlemen, we should take this matter up with the Department and ask not only for compulsory medical inspection of children in our schools, but that Sunday Schools be included. The Smith's Falls schools have had Medical Inspection in force for the past three years, and, having watched its progress and results closely, I know whereof I speak; and moreover I may say that my views in this matter are shared by Dr. C. L. Easton, Medical Officer of Health for that town. The minds of the people of Ontario are now in a receptive state, the Government know this, and now, therefore, is the psychological moment to ask for this important measure.

We should ask for amendments to the Truancy Act. A Board should have power to appoint and pay its truant officer. Then will proper results be secured, and not until then. Usually this task is appended to the multitudinous duties of a policeman, who has already too much to do; consequently this important duty is neglected, like most others demanded of him, through no fault of his, as one man cannot accomplish the work of three, as most municipalities expect their officers to do.

I believe in compulsory education; but why compel attendance at school from 8 to 14, and allow attendance from 5 years? From 5 to 8 the pupil does not come under the Truancy Act, and may come and go from school *ad libitum*, much to the annoyance of the teacher and the detriment of the class. If we were at liberty to send the truant officer to ascertain why John Smith, age 7, absented himself from school, we would in all probability find that John was suffering from a light or otherwise form of measles, scarlet fever,

chickenpox, or a like disease; the case would be reported to the M.O.H., the home quarantined, and the school protected. However, under the Act as at present, we cannot send the officer, and in a few days John returns to school, with no visible symptoms, but passes the deadly germs to the other pupils with whom he comes in contact. I would like to see a resolution passed by this Section, recommending to the Department that the age of admission to our schools be raised from 5 to 6 years, and once having started at school, regular attendance be made compulsory and made subject to the Truancy Act.

One of the greatest menaces to Public School educational progress is the moving-picture show, which is largely to blame for the indifference of the pupil referred to above. During the year I had sent to me a clipping—I believe from the *Mail and Empire*—entitled “A Much-Needed Educational Warning,” being the report of a protest from the Teachers’ Association of Windsor, Walkerville and Sandwich against certain prevalent evils that are injurious to children in three ways. They interfere with the intellectual progress of the children at school; they lower the standard of childhood morality; they impair the child’s physical condition. The evils mentioned were moving-picture shows, cigarette smoking, and conspicuous exhibition of vulgar posters. Wise parents will not allow their children to substitute attendance at movies for rational attention to their school work. As the child’s moral nature develops, the way in which he spends his evenings will have much to do with the kind of man he is to be in after life.

The more his out-of-school time is filled up with a judicious mixture of physical play and school work, the less chance there will be for wasting it in less appropriate ways. John Burroughes, the famous American naturalist, says, “I believe if there is anything that tends to fill people’s minds with a conglomeration of cheap information without making them stop to think and digest it, it is moving pictures.” A child now cannot or rather should not gain admission unless accompanied by an adult. It would be in the interest of the schools and the State if the moving-picture houses were closed to all under school age, i.e., 14. The children would benefit thereby physically, mentally and morally.

Military training should be required of every boy attending our schools, as a qualification for citizenship, its privileges and responsibilities. Every citizen should be prepared to defend his

country when needed, and as a patriotic duty every citizen should be trained in military science for the benefit of the Government in defence; but, irrespective of the value to the Government, I consider the value of the military training to the individual receiving it of such importance as to warrant military science being made a part of the course of every Public and High School. All that can be said in favor of school sports, athletics, etc., can also be said in favor of military training, as both are destined to produce a higher type of boys, physically, mentally and morally. If wars were to be no more, I still believe military training should be retained in the schools for the good physical and disciplinary results obtained.

I would like to say a word to the members from rural school sections in particular. On two occasions during the year that is past I had the pleasure of attending School Fairs. Any school section which has not taken up this branch of educational work does not realize what it has missed as a stimulus to the school work, a recreation for the pupil and an immense educational advantage to its pupils. If you have not already embarked in this enterprise, get in touch with your nearest Ontario Department of Agriculture district representative at once. He will be glad to co-operate with you. Have your first School Fair next Fall, and note the intense interest of the pupils, their hearty and healthy competition, and the value to your school in increased community interest, even in increased interest in ordinary academic studies.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

J. L. SPRAGUE, DIRECTOR OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION, HAMILTON.

Technical education is not a narrow form of trade training, but it is a serious attempt to reorganize our system of public instruction so that it will prepare our children for life.

Education should be preparation for life. That is the test to apply to any system of public instruction. Measured by this rule, our present system of education is a failure.

Millions of dollars are invested in plant, equipment and teaching staff in the present system of public schools. What are the returns on this investment? The answer is found in the school attendance reports of almost every town or city in the Province. Out of every thousand children starting to attend school in the Junior First Book, about 300 will finally reach the Senior Fourth Book; about 150 of these will pass the Entrance; about 75 of these will enter the High School; about 35 of these will matriculate; about 5 of these may go to College or University. In other words, over 80 per cent. of the children who pass through our Public Schools leave before they are 16 years of age. These never go to High School. Only about one out of every 75 ever go to College or University.

How well prepared for life are these children who constitute the 80 per cent. who leave school before reaching the High School? The average pupil from the Fourth Book cannot work fractions readily or accurately, and their writing is a scrawl. This is the net result of about eight years' work on the most valuable raw material with which any organization has to deal. Our present educational mill grinds out 80 per cent. of its grist in this shape. Employers hiring these children find that they have nothing to offer in exchange for their wages but their time. The result is that most of these children land in "blind alley" jobs and gradually drift by force of circumstances into the unskilled labor class of the nation.

What is the trouble with the present Public School system? It is this: We are maintaining a system of public instruction that is not adjusted to modern economic and industrial conditions. The present forms of book instruction in our schools are just so many

steps leading to entrance to the University. Everything is nicely standardized. It is an orderly system, and theoretically it is a fine achievement, but in practice it is a great failure. For eight years our children are stuffed with scraps of information about geography, history, taught arithmetic by book rules and encumbered with a lot of useless baggage. And when these children leave school we find that they have not even mastered the rudiments.

The fundamental defect is that the present system of public instruction confines itself to book work and the training of the memory faculties. Pupils have little or no opportunity to apply either arithmetic, language or spelling to practical problems. The remedy lies in introducing into our schools a larger element of vocational training. Manual Training, as now practised, is merely playing about the edges of this problem. One and a half hours per week manual training doled out to pupils in the Fourth Book, only scratches the surface. Every Public School of any size should have workshops for instruction in wood and metal work and equipment and room for domestic science and sewing and homemaking instruction. Every pupil from 12 years of age, irrespective of school standing, should be given at least one hour each day in this practical work. Arithmetic, language and spelling instruction should be correlated with this practical work. The result would be that pupils would develop constructive faculties of mind, resourcefulness, self-confidence, and would carry away with them some real preparation.

Further than this, every school of any size should have an auditorium, gymnasium and ample playground space. This does not mean more expense, but economy, because it would make possible a radical revision of the entire time-table of the average Public School. It would enable school principals to take care of just as many pupils as are now enrolled in our schools, with the same classroom space. It would result in the use of our school plant and equipment for more hours during the day and more months in the year. The total enrollment could be divided into two schools, and while one received instruction in classrooms, the other would be in the shops, in the auditorium for debates, lectures, recitations and other exercises which give pupils an opportunity to apply their language instruction; and in physical culture and

supervised play. Such schools could operate from 9 a.m. to 4 or 5 p.m., and children would be happy and grow under such treatment.

All this would lay a splendid basis for more advanced Technical training. It would give those children who leave school between 14 and 16 years of age better preparation for life, and it would provide better material for advanced Technical instruction.

How is this change in methods of public instruction to be brought about? By the School Trustees of the different communities of this Province. The Provincial Department of Public Instruction is making liberal grants in aid of vocational training in our public schools. More manual training could be incorporated in the course of instruction in the Public Schools if Boards of Education would provide the room and equipment. More Technical Schools could be built in industrial centres if the School Trustees of different communities would take advantage of what the Provincial Department of Education stands ready to grant in aid of this form of instruction. The Department pays for the entire cost of equipment and half the cost of this form of instruction. This makes this form of instruction the least expensive to taxpayers of any undertaken by the community.

More than ever we are now facing a crisis in our industrial development. We must go into this business of making men for the industries of Canada on a broad basis. If we make skilled men we can turn out products of skilled workmanship; not otherwise. Take our human raw material, train it, and we shall then be successful in shaping the raw materials of field, mine and mill into finished products that will sell in the markets of the world.

Technical Schools offer more intensive training in specific trades and engineering. Briefly, they will develop activities along the following lines:

1. All-day classes for training boys and girls of 14 years of age and upwards in specific trades. This will be pre-apprenticeship training to prepare them for a definite vocation in life.

2. Part-time classes for regular indentured apprentices from all lines of industries, for instruction in related drawing and mathematics and the underlying science of the trade. Over twenty Hamilton firms are now sending apprentices to the Technical School one-half day each week for this instruction.

3. Part-time classes for children between 14 and 17 years of

age, who leave school to go to work before completing the Public School course. The Adolescent Attendance Act gives Boards of Education authority to establish these classes and to compel attendance of these minors. This means continuation instruction one-half day each week or longer. There are now thousands of children in what are known as "child labor jobs," who should be given this instruction.

4. Advanced classes in engineering to prepare pupils to enter the School of Practical Science.

5. Evening classes for workers in business and industry.

For generations we have maintained a system of public instruction shaped to promote a small percentage of our children through High School and University into literary, medical, legal and engineering pursuits, while we have neglected to provide forms of instruction for the 80 per cent. who have to go to work in stores, mills and factories. The time has come for Boards of Education to give this system of instruction they have maintained for so many years critical examination. What is the output for all this expenditure of the taxpayers' money? What kind of finished product do you turn out? You deal with the most precious raw material of the nation—human material, the children of the community. They enter our schools—what for? Simply to pass from book to book and win a diploma? Not that, but to be truly *prepared for life*. When they leave our schools to-day, are they prepared for life? That is the problem which School Trustees must solve to be true to their trust, and the time for solving it is now.

MUSIC IN THE SCHOOLS.

GEO. W. FLUKER, MUSICAL DIRECTOR, SMITH'S FALLS PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Music ranks with the recognized necessities of the human race. The desire for Music is earth-wide. This world-wide desire or passion manifests itself everywhere, from millionaire to millhand—the student looking for inspiration and example—the day laborer with an uncultured hunger for just melody and rhythm. “The gift of song is chiefly lent to give consoling music for joys we lack.” The importance of the study of music is now freely recognized. The Ontario Department of Education includes music in the syllabus. In numerous cities and towns it is placed as a regular subject in the school curriculum. Progressive inspectors, Boards of Education and teachers are fully alive to the beneficial effect of the study of music as a refining moral influence in the schoolroom. Music as a branch of study worthy a place in the Public School must be taught with other aims than that of cultivating the musical talent of those who have it, and making musicians of such as desire to be artists and teachers of music. Music must be used as a means to an end, and that end the same for which all study is given. Unless it can be so taught as to serve as a valuable aid in the physical, mental and moral culture of the pupil, it has no place in the Public School. “That it can be so taught has been proven conclusively.”

As a Means to Physical Culture.—Music is declared to have the power of so affecting the whole nervous system as to give sensible ease in a large variety of disorders, and in some cases a radical cure. A Canadian nurse, who at the present time is engaged in hospital work in London, England, referring to shell shock, relates that music frequently supplies the stimulus that awakens the memory, as it does also in overcoming mutism. A patient, she says, who has been dumb for a longer or shorter period, will suddenly, to his own surprise and to the surprise of his companions, find himself joining in a familiar chorus. One of the first points to be remembered by a teacher of music is the position of the pupil. Deep, natural breathing is impossible when the body is in a cramped position. Make deep breathing a habit, and you have done more for the good health of

the pupil than you can possibly do by any other means. When this habit has been once formed the body is made more erect, the lungs are expanded, the circulation is improved and the whole system is invigorated. The direct effect on the health and physique of the child is invaluable.

As a Means of Mental Discipline, no branch of study can hold a higher rank than music. The concentration of attention and mental energy necessary to sight singing is quite equal to that required to solve the most difficult problems. The rapidity with which the mind must work, to see at a glance the length and pitch of the notes, to grasp the musical phrase, to read the words connected with it, to give the correct rhythm, not to mention the variations required in time and power, can hardly be appreciated. The refining and elevating influence of good music is seldom denied. The school-room in which singing is a daily exercise is pervaded with an atmosphere of true culture and refinement, which the study of the three R's can never give. Through the assistance which music lends, the discipline of the school no longer occupies the greater portion of the teacher's time and attention. A superintendent of a Reform School, who keeps the boys singing when at their work, explains: "The devil never comes where good music is." We must not forget the fact that in music we are not only teaching that which we cannot see, but that of which we can give no idea by any picture, or by any drawing, with material objects of any kind, whether animate or inanimate; where the thing itself cannot be presented, a very fair idea of it can be gained by picture or other representation; in music we deal with the reality in order to gain any knowledge of it. Therefore what not to teach should be as seriously considered as how best to teach the things most essential to be known. The great value and influence of the study of music, physically, mentally and morally, will not be fully realized until the time now wasted in dry mathematics and nomenclatures of theory and notation is spent in keeping constantly before the mind the things essential to be known, together with their true representation.

Voices.—Realizing that children's voices are more flexible and more easily affected for good or ill than those of older people, the duty of the teacher to at least keep the voices in their natural, unstrained condition is evident. "We learn to do by doing." "The

first step for a child to take in learning to sing is to sing." "Music is the language of the emotions." The quality of the voice depends largely on the feelings. To play upon the emotions of a child means, then, to change the quality of his voice. For this reason, to the lesson in rote or imitative singing has been delegated the work of awakening and expressing emotion, and through this and other means the training of the voice is accomplished. Not that the intellect is supposed to be idle during this work, but that all the thoughts are to be concentrated upon the meaning and emotion expressed in the song, and by the judicious management of the teacher this concentration of energy brings about results in the way of the artistic performance of music, which can be accomplished with children by no other means. A teacher of rote singing should be a singer of sufficient cultivation to sing with a natural pure tone, clear enunciation, accurate time, and intelligent expression. Music, like poetry, is characterized by a regularity of rhythm and accent. Much of the pleasure which we derive from music is due to this fact. It is unwise to teach mathematics of time while the thing itself is left untouched. Difficulties encountered by many teachers in teaching time are mainly due to the fact that they endeavor to have the pupils apply it in practical work before it has been mastered by itself. This may be compared to one attempting to manufacture a product of mechanical art requiring a skilful application of tools the use of which he has never learned. It may also be compared to setting a pupil adrift upon a stream before he has learned how to pilot a boat, for rhythm is the stream, tune is the boat and time is the helm by which the pupil must steer. Reading is the translation of written signs into songs. The system of music-reading is a language which, when properly understood, may be read as one reads a book; and which, when taught with the care and understanding thought necessary for teaching other branches of study, is as easily learned by a child as his reading lessons. The study of music is dry, hard and uninteresting to children when presented abstractly or in theory, but it is fraught with the greatest interest when their minds are kept constantly in contact with the real facts. Our teaching of music must be made to conform with natural laws. "The known before the unknown," "The easy before the difficult," "The simple before the complex," and "One thing at a time," are maxims with which every teacher is familiar. The

teacher who is familiar with educational principles and the natural laws on which they are based can be trusted to work out new methods and ways of his own to promote and stimulate interest, because he understands what he is doing. Efficient teaching can be looked for through improved knowledge and increased skill in methods of teaching by the regular teacher. As a branch of study in the Public School, music involves then: 1st, General Culture. "To promote natural breathing, to train the ear and the voice, to cultivate taste for good music, to teach a good style of singing." 2nd, Mental Discipline. "To teach relative pitch, to cultivate a sense of rhythm, to teach symbols of music, to teach sight singing, the presentation of the work must be tasteful, attractive and interesting." Primary grade pupils are taught to sing easy, bright rote songs, receive instruction in breathing exercises, ear and voice training. In due time the class is promoted to 1st book grade. Here similar methods, exercises in rhythm, pitch and enlarging the voice compass, are employed. In the 2nd book grade, greater attention is given to breathing, articulation, vocalization, and the children readily sing at sight. In the 3rd book grade, that point at which youthful minds ask the why and wherefore of things, "symbols of music, staff notation, sharped fourth, flatted seventh, key signatures one to four sharps and one to four flats are introduced. The primary grade class of, say five years ago, having reached the fourth book or entrance grade, is now prepared to take up the study of reasonably difficult songs and exercises in two parts and three parts in treble and bass clefs, together with studies in transposition and minor mode. All this is accomplished concurrently with the regular branches of study, and affords an agreeable change in the routine of school work. Systematic teaching of singing in the Public School will go a long way toward giving us a generation of improved singers, speakers and readers. "We cut our consonants, we mutilate our vowels and telescope our small words." An early training in singing is one of the hopeful ways of securing an improvement to round our *o*'s, to broaden our *aw*'s and deeper our *r*'s are simple points and might be placed in any school curriculum with beneficial effect.

MUSIC IN LARGER SPHERE.

Music, its value and influence in a larger sphere. Music plays

on the emotions of the human heart, swaying it as it will. Listen to those tender, soothing songs that calm the excited and make the troubled forget their care, carrying them back to thoughts of love, home and happiness. Those old songs that have been cherished and handed down from generation to generation and have the peculiar power of opening the floodgates of memory, causing kaleidoscopic views to pass before the vision of scenes with which the songs are more intimately connected. "Home, Sweet Home," "Rock of Ages, Cleft for Me," "Nearer, My God, to Thee," "Abide with Me," "Lead Kindly Light"—such songs as these can never lose their power; they have comforted thousands of souls, and will do so while the world lasts. Music is a glorious gift of God. Time spent in its study is time well spent. Money spent in the cultivation of music is money well spent. Children who sing at their play will hardly quarrel; parents who sing will find the burden of their daily tasks grow lighter. There is rest and recreation in music. Once a frail minister, who thought that the progressive wheels of the world's work would stop if he took a vacation, slept and dreamed a dream. He dreamed that he died and appeared before the Lord. The Lord seemed surprised to see him, and asked, "What did you come so soon for? Why did you not take needed rest and recreation and so prolong your life?" The minister wakened. He went to Europe. He took rest and recreation. He recovered his health and is alive to-day, and is known for inspiring words all over America. The charm of music is great; it hushes the infant to rest; at the family altar it uplifts the soul in worship to God and Heaven. In the home it fosters the home spirit, and strengthens family ties. If the Gift of Song is a gift Divine, the disposition to sing is a holy influence. "Teach the child to sing."

Were music taught in all our Public Schools, urban and rural, the time would soon come when the great mass of the people could sing, and then our churches would not suffer, as many of them do now, for good music; but good choir singing and good congregational singing would be the rule instead of the exception. When the great congregations can sing as with one voice, can there be any doubt as to an increased interest in the church service or of the superior efficiency of such a service to touch the heart. Byron says: "There's music in the sighing of a reed; there's music in the gushing of a rill; there's music in all things if men had ears; their

earth is but the echo of the spheres." Music is like the band of fate, from which no patriot can escape when called for in defence of home and country. The present day is marked by a deepening and quickening of the national conscience. Nowhere has this growth more revealed itself than in the Public School, where patriotic themes, occasions, and the study of National history receive a degree of attention never before known. Recent events in our national life have served to intensify this trend and deeply stir the spirit of Patriotism. This spirit, in turn, finds expression in National music and patriotic songs. One has but to mention as inspiring school songs, "Rule Britannia," "Ye Mariners of England," "Oh, Canada, our heritage, our love, Thy worth we praise all other lands above; From sea to sea, throughout thy length, From pole to border land, At Britain's side whate'er betide, Unflinchingly we'll stand, With heart we sing, God Save the King, Guide thou the Empire wide do we implore, and prosper Canada from shore to shore"—in the magnificent singing of a great National Chorus, the swelling harmonies of a great cathedral organ, now in thunder peal, now in cadence gentle as zephyr breeze, or the martial music of a splendidly equipped, perfectly trained military band, the exciting skirl of the bagpipes, or the clear clarion tone of the bugle sounding the advance on the scarred, battered battlefields of France and Flanders. To-day, when Canadian youth, aye, and veteran too, is fighting side by side with the British Empire for free institutions, democracy and liberty, yielding their lives that you and I may enjoy the blessing of British liberty and British freedom. In fury the war-storm rages; but on the distant hills we see a glimmer of a dawn of peace; now there is a shimmer of sunshine over the waves; now there is a rainbow over the tumult of the surging waters. It is true that there are thousands of our splendid men falling in the fight. Let us sing of their valor and heroism. Let us sing to the land that gave our heroes birth. In the schoolroom, the home, the church, the concert hall. At the military training camp, on the march, at the battle front. With pride and gratitude we recognize the great value, the powerful influence of music.

THE ADOLESCENT SCHOOL ATTENDANCE ACT.

T. SIDNEY KIRBY, OTTAWA.

This Act was first placed on the Statutes of Ontario in 1913. It was amended in 1916. The Board of Education of the City of London has, I understand, adopted a resolution approving of its general principles, but so far has made no real attempt to put it into force. I think I am correct in stating that no other School Board in the Province of Ontario has taken any action in regard to the Act. In discussing it we cannot, therefore, consider its merits because of any good effect it has yet had upon the people of Ontario. We must consider what it might do for the youth of this Province if it were put on a working basis.

Let me, first of all, state briefly the purpose of the Act. It is to give School Boards and educational authorities some measure of control over young people of both sexes between the ages of fourteen and seventeen years. The present School Law allows any child to leave school at the age of fourteen years, whether or not he has completed the elementary school course. The Adolescent School Attendance Act would extend this age of compulsory attendance to seventeen years unless the child had obtained a Senior Public School Diploma, which now requires a two years' course after passing the High School Entrance examination. In saying that the Act would give school authorities control over young people until the age of seventeen years, it must not be inferred that all these children between the age of fourteen and seventeen would spend full time at day schools during this three-year period. The Act gives to the authorities bringing it into effect great latitude in determining the kind of school that young people are to attend and the amount of time they are to spend at school during this period. A Board might decide to extend the period of school attendance from fourteen to sixteen years only, or from fourteen to fifteen; or it might decide to make the provisions of the Act apply to boys and not to girls; or it might require boys and girls to attend day classes from fourteen to fifteen, half-day classes from fifteen to sixteen, and evening classes only from sixteen to seventeen. To put the matter

in another way, the School Board which passes a by-law bringing into effect this Adolescent School Attendance Act may use its own judgment regarding the time that young people are to attend classes after the age of fourteen years, and the nature of the classes they are to attend; but the Board cannot exercise any supervision after the boys and girls have reached the age of seventeen, nor must a Board necessarily treat all boys and girls of the same age in the same way. The Board invoking the Act would have a right to decide each case on its merits. It might require one fifteen-year-old boy to attend full-time classes between fifteen and sixteen years, and allow another boy of the same age to work during the day and attend evening classes.

Is this Act in the interests of the people of the Province? Has the State any right to exercise a compulsory control over anything beyond elementary education? The question is a big one and cannot be disposed of in a word or two. Less than fifty years ago thousands of parents in England objected to the State exercising any compulsory control over the education of their children, claiming that a parent had a right to educate his children or not, just as he liked, and that a compulsory education act was an interference with the freedom of the individual. Much water has flowed under the bridge during the past fifty years, and few men could now be found in any English-speaking country who would claim the right of a parent to decide whether or not his child should be given the rudiments of an English education; but if the principle of State control over the education of a child be once admitted, who is to say where it shall stop? Why fix the period arbitrarily at fourteen years? Why say that the child shall be compelled by the State to learn reading, writing, and arithmetic, and not be compelled to master the elements of some vocation by means of which he can make himself a useful member of society? During the past three years, owing to the stress of war, we have seen the State exercise a control over many things which we had formerly thought were strictly the domain of private rights, and, if in time of great national stress, it is the duty or even the right of the State to exercise such control, it can surely be argued that in time of peace the State has an equally just claim to exercise a control which will make more efficient citizens of its young people.

No one can successfully hold that our High Schools and Col-

legiate Institutes are not in large measure vocational schools. There are in these schools comparatively few young people who are not preparing themselves for some vocation by which they expect to earn a living. They are preparing to be teachers, or lawyers, or doctors, or bookkeepers, or engineers, and the fact that a large part of the instruction given them has a cultural value in itself, quite irrespective of their proposed vocation, does not make it any less true that their main object in taking this course is to fit themselves for some vocation. Is it not true that our present system is a lopsided one, and that, while our teachers, lawyers, doctors, and engineers are receiving vocational training largely at the expense of the State, the great mass of our young people between the ages of fourteen and seventeen are floundering about trying to adapt themselves to some vocation without any definite and adequate preparation for that vocation? Is it not true that our present system gives vocational training at the expense of the State to that part of our population who could best afford to pay the full cost of its vocational training and denies facilities for vocational training to the great mass of the people who have most need for it? From the day he enters the high school until he graduates from the university or the law school, the State bears certainly more than fifty per cent. of the education of the young lawyer. The same thing is largely true of the education of teachers, doctors, preachers, and engineers. I know it is easy to argue that these professions are absolutely necessary for the State, that the members of them are the leaders of our social system, and that unless they are well educated our civic life and institutions of all kinds would suffer. I am willing to grant the truth of this, but at the same time contend that the printer, the plumber, the bookbinder, the machinist, and all other workers have an equal claim upon the State for guidance and instruction in their respective callings. Our present discrimination is due to a survival of the old idea that a trade must be learnt in a practical way by apprenticeship, and that the members of a learned profession are educated through lectures and by reading books. We have allowed the apprenticeship system to go almost entirely out of practice, and have taken no satisfactory step to replace it by vocational and trade schools. The result is that thousands of young people, especially boys, in our modern towns and cities drift about from fourteen to seventeen trying many occupa-

tions without any intelligent guidance, and without any opportunity to find out through workshop practice for what particular occupation they are best fitted by nature. This is an irreparable loss to the individual and a serious loss to society. I do not, of course, claim that society can ever reach a condition where every one of its members is properly trained for the vocation to which he is best suited by nature, because, even after every effort has been made by the State to provide adequate opportunities for vocational training, there will remain a considerable number who, through lack of steadfastness of purpose or moral backbone, will drift from one occupation to another and never really be prepared for any; but surely it is a duty of the State to reduce this latter class to the least possible number. This, as I understand it, is the purpose of the Adolescent School Attendance Act. It is designed to give society a control over young people during that period when they most need control and when, more than at any other period in their lives, they are susceptible to influences both good and bad which are likely to determine to a large extent their future.

The Adolescent School Attendance Act very properly does not apply to a board of rural school trustees. It is probably assumed that young people living upon farms who have reached the age of fourteen years will at that age either have voluntarily chosen a vocation which will require them to attend school, or will have decided to follow agriculture in some of its branches; and if they have made this latter decision it is surely reasonable that they should begin the study of the practical part at the age of fourteen. It is likely that comparatively few villages and small towns could put the Act into force with any possibility of profit. Their conditions are too nearly like those of the rural districts. It would seem, therefore, that for the present at any rate this Act is of practical interest to only the towns and cities of Ontario.

Let us now examine exactly what might be done by a town or city Board with this Act. Assuming that our town or city has already in operation a system of high and public schools, let us consider what further machinery and equipment is necessary in order that the Adolescent School Attendance Act might be profitably put into operation. It would probably be found that at the present time at least half of the boys who have reached the age of fourteen years have not completed even the elementary school

course; and of those who do complete it, it will be found that less than half enter a high school and attend it long enough to receive from it any real benefit. This means that at the most not more than one-quarter of the boys between fourteen and seventeen years of age in our towns and cities are now attending schools, or it means that a system of vocational and industrial training for adolescent boys would have to provide for about seventy-five per cent. of the total number. There are in our towns and cities, for every one thousand of population, not less than thirty-six boys between fourteen and seventeen years of age, and not more than five to ten of these boys are now receiving instruction in school. This means that even if we provide for boys only, we should have to provide some kind of training for not less than twenty-five boys for every one thousand of population, or that we should have to provide for twenty-five hundred boys in a city of one hundred thousand. To do this would require an enormous extension of our present school accommodation and a greatly increased expense to the taxpayers; but if it could be made the means of raising our average intelligence and skill, it would be well worth while.

It may safely be assumed that a considerable number of these twenty-five hundred boys would find places in the schools, public and high, already established, but by far the larger number of them would require to be provided with facilities for some kind of vocational training. In considering this question of vocational training, it would be necessary to consider the local industries of the town or city and the surrounding country, and this for two reasons: First, because the boys would naturally wish to prepare themselves for the industries of their own neighborhood; and second, because it could reasonably be assumed that a part of the boys' time between the ages of fourteen and seventeen would be spent in an apprenticeship, or in part-time work to some one of the local industries. There are, however, certain basic forms of training which develop a boy's intelligence and fit him for a place as a skilled workman, or a foreman in almost any industry. Such basic industries are represented by wood-work, which would include a knowledge of the turning lathe, and a mastery of the ordinary tools used by a carpenter or a cabinetmaker, and simple forging and elementary machine-shop practice. With all of these there would naturally be a well-developed course in drawing and shop

arithmetic. Plumbing, tinsmithing and electrical work are also industries which have a high educational value and are a part of the industries of every town and city. Printing is another form of training which gives mechanical skill and develops a high order of intelligence. I think it might fairly be assumed that any vocational work given beyond these I have mentioned would depend wholly upon the local needs of the town or city undertaking the work. In some it might be highly desirable to specialize in such an industry as paper-making, in another the making of furniture, in another some form of textile industry; but all these would have to be decided by local needs.

It can readily be seen that to establish classes to meet these needs would be no easy matter. It would be necessary to have for the younger adolescent boys—say those between fourteen and fifteen years—full-time classes covering the ordinary school day, or about twenty-five hours per week. In these classes the boys would probably spend not less than half their time in shop work, the other half being spent in a study of the theory of their work, under the name of Elementary Science and English, which would include composition, spelling, with perhaps the addition of writing and arithmetic. In the second year, for boys from fifteen to sixteen, experience in other countries has shown that the best results are secured by having the boys spend half time in some wage-earning industry and half time in the schoolroom. For boys over sixteen years, voluntary day classes, with compulsory evening classes for certain boys, have been found to work very well. My own opinion is that if these vocational classes were once established and the scheme on a good working basis, very little compulsion would have to be used in order to secure the attendance of nearly every boy in a town or city. The actual advantages to the individual and to the community would be so apparent that boys and their parents would be eager to avail themselves of the opportunities offered.

We are now exporting from our country enormous quantities of raw material in the shape of pulp, lumber, and other natural products. Into many of these we put a minimum of labor and receive for them a comparatively low price. Some European countries, where industries are highly developed, take a small amount of raw material, and, by working it over with skilled labor, receive for it a very large price. We can never hope to secure

large sums for our Canadian products unless we can put into them a greater measure of Canadian skill, and this Canadian skill can only be developed through vocational and technical training. Viewed from this standpoint, this subject becomes one of national importance.

In considering the establishment of vocational training, I have assumed that the compulsory clauses of the Act would, at first at any rate, apply only to boys. This does not mean that I would not have vocational training provided for girls. It only means that in their case I do not think it would be necessary to make attendance compulsory. Nine out of ten women eventually become home-makers, and if proper facilities for training in household science are provided for girls between the ages of fourteen and seventeen years, no compulsion will be needed to induce the most of them to take advantage of such course. The home and the girl's insight into her own future will supply all the pressure that is needed to secure attendance.

I come now to a consideration of the practical difficulties involved in carrying out the Adolescent School Attendance Act. In my opinion, our educational machinery in towns and cities could be greatly improved and must be improved in the near future. We need a more unified system and control of administration. It is had enough in any town or city to have two School Boards, Public and Separate, managing educational affairs, but this evil is aggravated when we have, as we do have in many towns and cities, a Separate School Board, a Public School Board, and a Collegiate or High School Board. There is no possible excuse for all this cumbersome machinery. Every town and city in Ontario should have a Board of Education to manage public school affairs and high school affairs, and it would be a great advantage if this Board of Education could have for technical advisor a school superintendent, as they have in the towns and cities of the United States.

The single Board of Education to manage public or elementary schools, high schools, and vocational and technical schools, becomes absolutely necessary if the vocational and technical work is to be carried on without friction and without waste of the taxpayers' money. I say "without friction," because, to provide vocational training or other education for all adolescents would require the use of schools, school buildings, and school equipment now owned

and managed in several towns and cities by two different school boards, and it is common sense that one school authority, responsible to the people, could use the school plant to better advantage than two such authorities. I say "without waste of the taxpayers' money," because one Board needs only one office building, one secretary, and one set of office equipment, whereas two Boards must duplicate this machinery.

Every city in Ontario should have a Superintendent of Schools who would act as the Board's technical advisor, and who would, under the Board, be responsible for the management of all classes of schools. Systems of education for any city ought not to be split up into water-tight compartments. Education has many aspects, but it should be unified as much as possible. A School Superintendent having the qualifications now required by the Department of Education of Public School Inspectors, and having a general oversight over every educational project carried on under the School Board, would be a link binding together all school activities. If a strong man, he would have a wide field for the initiation and development of educational movements to suit the needs of the people. If a weak man, the responsibilities of his position would soon force him to give way to one better fitted to serve the public. This system of one Superintendent to direct every kind of school activity is not only in use in every large American city, but it prevails in Great Britain and in all Canadian cities outside of Ontario. This Section of the Ontario Educational Association, charged especially with promoting the interests of urban schools, could not possibly undertake any more important educational reform than the securing of a School Superintendent for every large urban centre.

The Adolescent School Attendance Act may be brought into force by an urban Public School Board, a Board of Education, or an urban Separate School Board by passing a by-law at a special meeting, after giving due notice in the local newspaper. The Board passing the by-law bringing into effect the Act may also make every necessary regulation prescribing the kind of classes pupils are to attend and the nature of the attendance required of pupils of different ages. If the Act be put into force by a Board of Education it would seem that every necessary power is given that Board to put the Act effectively into practice. But if the Act

is put into force by an urban Public School Board or Separate School Board, it would seem that it could not work out satisfactorily because the providing of all vocational classes is left to the Advisory Industrial Committee of the High School or Collegiate Institute, and this Advisory Industrial Committee might or might not provide those classes in accord with the wishes of the School Boards invoking the Act and in accord with the needs of the people. The Act professes to provide machinery by which an Advisory Industrial Committee could be forced to provide vocational classes; but as this machinery provides for a vote of all the ratepayers, it places the provision for vocational training initiated by either a Public or Separate School Board at the mercy of a vote by the school supporters of a wholly different school system, who might not be equally interested in the working of the Act.

The Act is, in my opinion, a move in the right direction. It has great possibilities, but to work with even a fair prospect of success it must either be amended to give to either urban Public School Boards or urban Separate School Boards power to establish and conduct vocational classes, or, if this is not done, we must have legislation to force the creation of Boards of Education wherever we now have separate urban Public School Boards and High School Boards, and we must also have under a Board of Education a Superintendent-Inspector capable of giving advice concerning every type of school and every phase of school work.

“STOP, LOOK AND LISTEN”

I. E. FAREWELL, K.C., WHITBY.

These words should be painted in large letters across each piece of road crossed by a railway track. They should be printed in display type above every announcement as to the movement of railway trains, in every newspaper. They should be posted up in every jail and prison yard. They should be displayed in every market-place and on every large weigh scale and certainly in every schoolroom in the country.

Why is all this publication and posting up of these words required? For the same reason that the words “Safety First” have received so much publicity and consideration of late. They certainly should be posted in public schools, to save valuable lives of children who, as they grow up, may have more sense than their fathers and mothers as to this matter. What is the toll of death taken annually by railways on this continent, because people are on railway tracks at times and at places when and where they have no right to be?

In Canada, Mexico and the United States, while trespassing on railways, there were 4,746 people killed, 826 more lost one limb, 172 more lost two limbs and 5,041 met with other serious injuries, making a total of 10,785 killed and injured *during one year*. Three thousand four hundred and eighty two of these persons sustained injuries in cities where the blessings of civilization have brought with them so many means of destruction, such as motorcycles, auto-trucks, automobiles, etc.; but out in the country, where people have plenty of time and plenty of room to take care of themselves, 3,421 persons received serious injury through trespassing on railways; and in towns and villages, where people think they are remarkably cute and sharp, and know how to take care of themselves, 3,882 people were killed or seriously injured.

Why were all these people killed or injured? Simply because they were walking on railway tracks or railway grounds, where they had no business, or because they did not take ten seconds to “Stop, look and listen.”

Statistics show that more persons trespassing on railways are killed or seriously injured in each year than are killed amongst the millions of passengers, many of them riding long distances, upon railways. And in addition to this, we have statistics showing that the number of trespassers killed exceeds not only the number of passengers killed, but also the number of laborers who are lawfully on the track, engaged in repairs and construction as well.

So many charges of negligence were made against railway employees that, by statute, it was made the duty of County Crown Attorneys to have Coroner's inquests held in every case of death occurring during the construction and operation of railways. Coroners' Juries are now paid fees (far too small) for the services rendered. Coroners' fees (lately increased), constables' fees, Crown Attorneys' fees (which seem never to increase in amount), the medical men employed to make post-mortem examinations when circumstances point to negligence by any railway official, also receive fees. The persons operating the railway train lose their time and incur expense, as do the other witnesses, who are called and get nothing for their loss of time and expenses. Add to this the time lost from productive labor by all these people, who are necessarily present at inquests, and by the dozens of men who always drop their work and are in attendance when an inquest is going on. Is the public interested in stopping trespassing on railways?

If the trespasser killed is a stranger, the expenses of his burial have to be added. So, looking at the matter from a money point of view, it is certainly time that efforts were made by more publication of warnings and by lengthy periods of imprisonment of persons who trespass upon railways.

Besides all this slaughter of the CULPRITS, who are killed because they were where they had no right to be, there is also the slaughter of innocents, who have a right to cross the railroad at certain times, but not the right of way at all times over the track. These people are generally very busy people—so busy that as they approach the railway they will not take thirty seconds of valuable time to “Stop, look and listen” for trains, and are killed as a matter of course.

“Familiarity breeds contempt,” it is said. Out of the 10,785 persons killed and injured during the year, it is known that 4,994 lived near the place of accident. People living near the railway,

and who cross the tracks, think that, having learned the schedule time for certain trains, that all they have to do is to look out for scheduled passenger and freight trains. They utterly neglect the fact that railways have a right to have ten times as many wildcat engines and extra trains passing over the line as they have regular trains.

The last Coroner's inquest I attended before writing this paper was on the body of a deaf man who lived near a railway track, who used to go on the track to pick up coal. Evidence showed that he had been warned many times by officials and others to keep off the track. The only answer this "wise guy" would make to these warnings would be that he knew what time the trains came along as well as the railway men did. Unfortunately, he did not know what time the wildcat engine came that killed him.

The inquest before that was upon the body of a very knowing, sober, respectable farmer, who had been for months driving his children down to Oshawa School, and going back to Oshawa to take them home from school, so that he crossed the track four times a day, and thought he knew the schedule time of all regular trains as well as the railway people did; and in this he was probably correct. But the railway officials knew nothing of the movements of the wildcat engine which killed him. The day was stormy, the road he was driving on crossed the track at an acute angle, he, his wife and two girls had their ears covered with wraps, and driving practically in the same direction as the approaching irregular engine. When at the track, "Very busy man, he," he did not have ten seconds of time to "Stop, look and listen." He whipped up his horse with such good effect that the horse got over the track all right, but the carriage was smashed and so was the busy man, who knew just when the trains were to cross the road on which he was driving. His wife was crippled for life, and one of his children seriously injured.

After many years' experience as a County Attorney, I am satisfied that little is to be hoped for by calling the attention of the men who drive across railway tracks without stopping, looking and listening, to the dangers of such a practice, and the only hope of preventing this great loss of life and heavy expenditure for Coroners' inquests and litigation in every county, by persons injured or their personal representatives, against railway companies,

is by posting notices on the walls of the schoolrooms, with the statistics showing the deaths and severe injuries occasioned to persons trespassing on railways or through their carelessness in crossing railways, without exercising due care. There should also be statistics posted in schoolrooms showing the large number of deaths and injuries occasioned to persons who commit trespass by walking along the railway track.

Our twentieth century civilization has, unfortunately, brought with it many new dangers, as great, if not greater than, the level railway crossings. The street car, motor truck, automobile, motorcycle and the cycle without a motor, driven or ridden by many thoughtless, heedless and unskilled persons, who often act as if persons in carriages and foot passengers have no rights which they are bound to respect. In cities, in winter and in summer, slippery and water streets are thronged with these instruments of destruction. Add to them the clanging auto fire-engine, and the rushing ambulance and the efforts of the drivers of other vehicles trying to avoid the latter, the people, old and young, must “Stop, look and listen,” if they value the safety of life and limb.

Would it not be wise if the school authorities were required to have painted in large letters in every schoolroom the words, “Safety First,” and “Stop, look and listen,” and also that the teachers should be ordered to require the whole school to repeat these words collectively, both slowly and rapidly, until these directions become so impressed on their minds that they become a part of the mental outfit of each pupil. Thirty seconds daily will do the work.

One of my early schoolmasters was an old Irish Roman Catholic, who wielded his flat, hard wooden ruler very often—sometimes when he should not have done so, and always when he should. Notwithstanding this propensity, he had many of the traits of a good teacher. He did more good work in pointing out our duties in life and warning us of the dangers of forming bad habits, and the pitfalls to which we would be exposed, and the advisability of acquiring habits of industry, honesty and sobriety, than any other of my teachers.

There were none of the sources of danger above referred to at that time, nor dangers arising from newly invented and complicated machinery, causing many serious accidents, in his day. If he were

teaching now, he would be constantly warning his pupils to "Stop, look and listen."

With these words placed conspicuously in the schoolroom, the tactful teacher would doubtless be sure to apply them to the conduct of the lives of the pupils, in warning them to STOP and consider before forming habits of idleness, carelessness and vice; and as Stittin, the boys' man, says, to "LOOK a long way ahead" and see where such habits will lead them, quoting from Butler's Hudibras:—

"And look before you, ere you leap;
For as you sow, you are like to reap."

The crimes which cause so much injury to the young and so much expense to the public are committed because children do not Stop to Look ahead and Listen to the voice of age and experience.

If the Kaiser, the lineal descendant and fiendish successor of Atilla, King of the Huns, who called himself the "Scourge of God," and boasted that "Grass never grew where his horse had trod," would stop his song of hate (his eyesight has been so dimmed by the grandeur of his own sublimity that he has not been able to Look), he might put his ear to the ground and hear what he might have expected as the result of his machinations, viz.:—

"The song of freedom strong,
Standing guard at the gates of earth.
Side by side, our flags flung wide,
Proclaim the pride of our kindred birth.

Take note, all ye of the alien speech,
Of our peoples, no longer twain, but one—
One in creed, one in our need,
One in battle and deed,
We shall win, not lose.

Be warned, all ye of alien kind,
From Polar barren to Isle impearled,
This shout you hear, so near and clear,
Is the marching cheer of the lords of the world.

Side by side we work our part,
That light may broaden and law command.
This is our place by right of race,
By God's good grace and the strength of our hand.

The strength of our hand in every land,
'Till the Master's work of the world be done|.
For the slaves release, for the bonds of peace,
That war may cease from under the sun.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS.

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THE RURAL PROBLEM.

Among men and women who are familiar with life in rural communities there appears to be a general agreement that rural conditions are not what they should be. The rural problem, as it is commonly spoken of, is usually stated by writers and speakers on rural life somewhat in the following form:

“The rural population is decreasing; farm labor is becoming scarce; life on the farm is unattractive. Some means should be taken to improve rural conditions so as to prevent boys and girls from leaving the farm and going to the city, and, if possible, to induce city-dwellers to return to the farm.”

But before we can accept this statement of the so-called problem, it is necessary for us to examine it carefully and to ask ourselves certain questions regarding existing conditions. Is it true that the rural population is decreasing, and that the drift to the city is responsible for it? Is this cityward movement of such a nature that it can be checked? Is the decrease in rural population, in any case, undesirable? If so, is it possible to take any effective measures to counteract its results? I shall try to answer these questions briefly in turn.

DECREASE IN RURAL POPULATION.

It is true, in the first place, that the rural population in most districts does show a decrease, but investigation has proved that the drift to the city is not so great as is generally supposed, and that the decrease is in a large measure due to rural migration to the newer provinces. Less than 30 per cent. of the increase in the population of the great industrial centres is due to migration from the country to the city.

THE DRIFT TO THE CITY.

It is unlikely, furthermore, that the drift to the city, such as it is, can be effectively checked. The city is the centre of intellectual

and social life, and deery it as we may, city life will always appeal to young people. Compared with the moving panorama which the city presents, the drudgery of milking and plowing and doing chores, and the solitude of long days in the fields and dreary evenings within doors seems intolerable. The city is, moreover, the centre of industrial activity, and the factory and office will continue to draw upon the fresh, vigorous life of the country for their best workers. Aside from all other conditions, the prospect of a regular weekly or monthly salary in the city, money to spend and the opportunity of spending it, is one of the great inducements which leads young people to leave the farm for the city. In any case, until the farm itself becomes a paying investment for money and labor, it is idle to talk of keeping young people on the farm.

RURAL LABOR CONDITIONS.

Decrease in rural population, to whatever causes it may be due, is undesirable when it reduces the supply of farm labor to such an extent as to decrease production. There is no doubt as to the scarcity of farm labor in Ontario, but there is no direct evidence that this scarcity has interfered seriously with production, although it has added to the drudgery of the farmer. Even if the drift to the city could be checked, it is doubtful whether it would greatly relieve labor conditions. But in time the migration to other provinces will decrease, and this will help the situation. In the meantime, the farmer must learn to utilize labor-saving devices and must depend upon improved machinery, more economical methods of labor and better organization to make up for the shortage of farm help.

THE REAL PROBLEM.

Decrease in rural population is also undesirable when it increases the isolation of the farm home and affects the social life of the community; and it has had this result in Ontario. The rural telephone and the daily newspaper are some compensation, it is true, but they do not take the place of the social gatherings that were so common twenty-five years ago. At the same time, also, as a result of the various changes that have taken place in recent years, people in rural communities have come to feel that there is something wrong with rural conditions, and that life in the country does not present the opportunities for development and for social enjoyment

that it should. How is it possible to improve these conditions so as to make life in the country in all respects more profitable and enjoyable for those who spend their lives on the farm? This is, after all, the real rural problem. It is, in reality, a question of rural reorganization, and into the solution of this problem a number of important factors enter.

THE OLD-TIME RURAL SCHOOL.

Of all the agencies which make for the economic and social betterment of the rural community, the rural school is, however, generally considered to be the most important. But if the rural school is to play an important part in solving the rural problem, it must itself be reconstituted. As an illustration of the outgoing type of rural school and rural teachers, let me refer again to my own experience. The school building in which I taught some twenty years ago was an unpainted frame structure, standing close to the roadway. It boasted of a small school-yard, well sprinkled with stumps, and punctuated in wet weather with mud-holes. Water for all purposes was obtained from a neighboring farmhouse. Within the schoolhouse itself were rows of uncomfortable wooden desks, which reminded me of the high pews in an old-fashioned church. The room was heated with an immense box stove situated near the door, and was lighted by a row of narrow windows on both sides of the room. The unsightly walls were bare of pictures or adornment of any kind. At the front of the room was a platform and teacher's desk, and behind the desk a narrow strip of plaster blackboard. The school contained no library and no equipment of any kind except a few torn maps, a small globe, and a well-worn rubber strap.

The teacher was an eighteen-year-old boy—brought up for the most part in town and with no knowledge of the farm. He did not know sandy loam from heavy clay or a Holstein from a Jersey. He had, to guide him, a "limit-table" defining the work to be done by each class, and he set himself energetically to cover that work. But the whole background of his teaching was as far remote from the home lives and the natural interests of his pupils as it was possible for it to be. In that forlorn, barn-like building, which went by the name of a school, his classes papered impossible rooms, worked meaningless problems in bank discount and stocks, learned the

names of obscure rivers and capes and the dates of unimportant battles, and struggled with the meanings and spellings of words which neither he nor his unfortunate pupils were ever to see again. But his pupils were successful in their examinations, and the inspector's recommendation, of which he was unduly proud at the time, testified that during his term of office the school prospered exceedingly. Incidentally, it should be mentioned that, as a part of his duties, he kindled the school fire and swept out the school (it was never scrubbed), and that at the annual meeting of the ratepayers a motion of censure was brought in owing to the fact that he had used two boxes of chalk during the year, whereas his predecessor had succeeded in getting along with one. In his spare time outside of school, in accordance with the instructions he had received at the Model School, he visited each family in the section, and as a result of these visits he had learned to play the violin badly and to take a hand at euchre tolerably well.

My own experience was, I am convinced, typical of that of very many other teachers under the old regime—teachers with limited professional training and with little knowledge of rural life. In such schools as these it was not to be expected that any real preparation for rural life would be made, or that any interest in rural problems would be developed.

THE MODERN SCHOOL.

But conditions have changed since then. In this particular section they have built a new brick schoolhouse, which is heated by a furnace. The school yard has been enlarged, and provision has been made for games. Equipment has been purchased, a library has been provided, and the present teacher, who has taken a summer session at the O.A.C., is interested in the work of the school-garden and the rural school fairs.

In many schools throughout the Province a similar improvement has taken place. Higher salaries, increased grants to schools, better training for teachers, more thorough supervision, have resulted in improved conditions. Teachers-in-training are given instruction in Nature Study and Elementary Agriculture at the Normal Schools, and liberal encouragement is held out to teachers who wish to take summer courses at the O.A.C. The Director of Elementary Agriculture is doing excellent work in the encourage-

ment of school gardens and in stimulating an interest in the teaching of Elementary Agriculture in the schools. The result is that in every county there are a number of teachers who are interested in Agriculture, who have some acquaintance with rural problems, and who are working, with intelligence and enthusiasm, to make the rural school an influence in community life.

URBAN AND RURAL SCHOOLS.

But although much has been accomplished during the past ten years for the betterment of rural education, no adequate solution for the rural problem has yet been provided. The present system of rural education at best is uneconomical and ineffective. This becomes at once evident when we make a comparison between conditions in urban and rural schools. To begin with, the ungraded, one-teacher school cannot offer a salary that will attract the best teachers and induce them to remain. The young teacher comes to the rural school fresh from the training-school, in most cases with the avowed intention of graduating into the town or city as soon as she has proved her worth—and the city robs the country of its best teachers. The course of the unfortunate boy or girl in the rural school is too often a series of initiations into the rules and regulations of a succession of new teachers. And, furthermore, where there are a large number of classes, each pupil gets very little of the teacher's time, and the so-called "busy work," at which the pupil spends so much of his time, is in too many cases deadening and worse than useless. In schools where there are Entrance classes and Fifth classes, the pupils in the lower grades sometimes receive very scant attention. Conditions such as this do not, for obvious reasons, exist in graded city schools. The city, moreover, is far in advance of the country in school architecture and equipment, sanitation, medical and dental inspection, supervised play and in provision for hand-work. In very few rural schools, as at present constituted, can any provision be made for household science and manual training. As a matter of fact, the average rural school building possesses few, if any, facilities for carrying on any work outside the subjects on the traditional rural school curriculum.

The remedy for these conditions, and at least a partial solution of the rural problem, must, in the opinion of the speaker, be sought

along three different lines, viz., consolidation of rural schools, special training for rural school teachers, and a rural school extension service. Each of these three will be considered in turn.

CONSOLIDATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS.

From what has already been said as to the disadvantages of the one-teacher rural school, it is easy to see, by inference, what are some of the most marked advantages of the consolidated school. The ideal consolidated school is situated in the country or on the outskirts of a "rural-minded" village. The building itself is modern, with all conveniences in the way of heating, ventilation, sanitation, drinking fountain, rural telephone, mailbox, etc., and, as a matter of course, adequate equipment is provided for all classes. The school has attached to it a school farm of from five to twenty-five acres in extent, for the illustration of farm and garden operations. Besides the regular classrooms, there is provision for the library, and for household science and manual training departments and playrooms. The walls are tastefully decorated, and the school is supplied with copies of the best pictures and with a phonograph, a lantern, a moving-picture machine, and a good library. The school is graded, not on the mechanical lines of the city school, but on a flexible plan adapted to the vigorous mental growth of healthy country children. The principal of this school is a graduate in agriculture, and, if possible, also in arts. The staff does not change so often as in the one-teacher school, for the salaries are better, the building more comfortable and better equipped, and companionship of other teachers is provided. The principal lives in the teacher's residence, which is a part of the school plant, and the produce of the school farm forms an attractive addition to his salary.

One of the great advantages of this school lies in the fact that every pupil gets a fair chance, and no class in the school is neglected. One of the weaknesses of the one-teacher school is that the farm boy or girl who has some free time during the winter months cannot be induced to return to school, and that the pupil who has finished his course in the public school grades must go to the town or city if he wishes to attend the Continuation or High School. But the consolidated school makes it possible for boys and girls to take up winter work, or to go on with their High School classes without

leaving their own school. On the administrative side, also, consolidation has distinct advantages over the older system, since it makes possible closer supervision and better inspection, by the principal of the school and the county inspector alike.

ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOLS.

But while consolidation is beyond any doubt a distinct improvement over the system of one-teacher schools, it is sometimes difficult, for local reasons, to carry it into effect, and in such cases a modification of the consolidated system is sometimes possible. In certain localities of the United States where it has been found impossible or inadvisable to put a scheme of consolidation into force, a group or association of district schools has been organized, with a consolidated school, or a high school as its centre. The associated schools in each group are under one Board of Trustees, who provide equipment, text-books, etc., at cost. The principal of the central school also directs the work of the associated schools. Each of the single-teacher schools, where there are pupils over ten years of age, is provided with manual training and domestic science equipment, and provision is made in all schools for work in agriculture. Pupils from each of the one-teacher schools spend one-half day a week at the central school for special instruction in agriculture, manual training and domestic science, and are given home-work to be carried out in their own schools during the following week. The instructor in agriculture in each case is the district representative. To those school sections which for any reason are not in a position to enter into a scheme of consolidating this system offers advantages over the older system, where each school exists as a separate independent unit.

One of the greatest stumbling-blocks in the way of consolidation or association of schools is the fact that our rural schools are controlled by local boards of trustees rather than by township or county boards. Before consolidation can be successful, the single section must lose its identity and become a part of the larger unit. It is understood that the Ontario Department of Education is in favor of such changes in our present system as will facilitate consolidation, but for obvious reasons no steps can be taken in this direction until after the war.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The second great factor in the solution of the rural problem is to be found in the special training of teachers for rural schools. The greatest need of the country district to-day is teachers who understand the needs of rural communities, and who are trained as to the best means of meeting those needs. At present, we make no attempt to differentiate between those who intend to teach in the town and those who intend to teach in the country. All receive the same training, and, as far as I am aware, aside from the rural conference which is held at each of the Normal Schools every year, no special attention is paid to rural problems. Our training schools are all situated in the cities. The teacher-in-training has constantly before him the machinery of city schools and of highly organized graded schools at that. It is true that he is required to go out to a rural school for a few days to observe rural school methods and teach practice lessons; but throughout practically the whole year his methods are directed by city teachers, upon whose approval his success or failure in his examinations depends. And furthermore, when the city-trained teacher completes his course at the training school, he generally prefers to remain in the city, if possible, where salaries are usually higher and work more attractive than in the ungraded country school. The city invariably has first choice of the graduates and the best and strongest teachers go to the urban schools.

RURAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

In the opinion of the speaker, the time has come for a change in this respect. If the rural school is to do its most effective work there must be a differentiation between training schools for urban and rural teachers, respectively. Certain Normal Schools should be set apart for training rural school teachers exclusively, or, better still, additional Normal Schools should be established in rural centres for the training of rural school teachers.

These rural Normal Schools will in all cases have attached to them a school farm and a consolidated practice school, and within reach of them, if possible, one or more single-teacher schools. And not the least of the advantages of rural training-schools should be the residence for teachers-in-training. The solution of the boarding-

house problem is of much greater importance to the teacher-in-training than much of the theory that he now receives from the training-schools.

As an alternative to the rural training-schools, special courses for the study of rural problems and rural school methods might be established in existing Normal Schools and Faculties of Education, under the charge of a specialist who is familiar with the problems of the rural school and rural community. This plan has been adopted in a number of the training-schools in the United States.

THE COURSES OF STUDY.

It would be out of place, in a paper such as this, to discuss the details of the Courses of Study in training-schools, and I shall confine myself to one or two main features. As a matter of course, instruction must be given in principles and general methods. But in my opinion there is very little practical value in much of the abstract theory that has always been considered essential to a course in teacher-training. The study of the Science of Education and the History of Education is necessary to give breadth of view, but for teachers in elementary schools the main outlines should be sufficient. The teacher-in-training in the past has been required to spend too much time on minute and profitless details of Psychology and History of Education. I have yet to meet with a teacher who ever taught a lesson better as a result of the study of History of Education.

Aside from outlines of general principles, the course of study at the training-school must be related to the courses of study in the rural or urban schools, as the case may be. These courses are essentially the same, but the rural teacher should draw his illustrations and his problems from the experiences of the boy or girl in the country, and as a result of his training in a rural Normal School he should be able to do this. How many of the graduates of our own training schools, for instance, know enough of farm life to relate the work in English Composition to the experiences of the boy or girl on the farm? Early last September I was staying on a farm in Western Ontario and had an opportunity to see something of the interests of an eight-year-old boy who had just been promoted to a second-book class. He was interested in the colt which his father had given into his charge, in the transplanting of

a bed of strawberries which his uncle from the city had undertaken to superintend, in the weed-seeds in his mother's vegetable garden, in the katydids that kept up an uninterrupted duet all evening long in the trees in front of the house, in the raccoon that visited the farmyard one very rainy night, and the weasel that killed his mother's chickens. He could have written a small volume on these and similar doings at the farm, but he struggled for a full half-hour to get a single sentence of the story of King Lear, which the new teacher, fresh from training-school, had required the class to reproduce. It is not so much what the teacher knows as her ability to relate it to the pupil's experience that counts.

Agriculture is optional in public schools, and the teaching of the subject is attended with difficulties. But the rural school teacher, whether she attempts to teach it or not, should be able to practise it in connection with the school garden and the rural school fair. The activities of the farm must form the background of the course of study in rural schools, not with the idea of preparing pupils to become farmers, but because the pupil can best be taught in terms of his own experience and environment. And here again the true solution of the difficulty lies in the establishment of consolidated schools, with at least one graduate in Agriculture as a member of each staff. A graduate of the Ontario Agricultural College will not now take a teaching position at a salary of six or eight hundred dollars a year, but a salary of \$1,200 or \$1,500 as principal of a consolidated school, with a teachers' residence and a twenty-five-acre farm attached, would prove a greater inducement. But, be this as it may, the course of training for the rural school teachers must include practical agriculture. The improvement of rural conditions on the economic side is essential to the solution of the rural problem and the school should lead the way in showing the value of scientific agriculture. And the course of study for the rural teacher at the Normal School should not only include agriculture as one of the most important obligatory subjects, but should also involve some study of rural economics which will enable the teacher to understand some of the problems which the farmer has to face. But it is equally important that the teacher-in-training should make some study of rural sociology. Young people leave the farm, we are told, because the city offers greater opportunities for development and for social enjoyment. This is a condition

which the rural teacher can perhaps help to remedy,—but she must be alive to the problem and have some knowledge of how it is to be solved. The charge is sometimes made that the whole influence of the rural teacher is towards the city and away from the country, where her greatest work lies. Her first duty is undoubtedly to do her work in the schoolroom in such a way as to command the respect of the section. And having done this, she must tactfully face the problem of improving the reading conditions of the community and of stimulating an interest in good pictures and good music. The debating club and literary society must fall to her special charge,—and in all these activities the aim should be to make the school the social centre of the community. Within the classroom itself, her influence must be felt in the cultivation of good speech and in placing before the pupils proper ideals of tasteful dress, home-furnishing, etc. And in the home itself she must prove to be a sympathetic and tactful friend. This is perhaps a high ideal, but not too high,—and one that calls for stimulating and inspirational training in the Normal Schools.

EXTENSION WORK IN RURAL SCHOOLS.

But granted that the teacher has been so trained as to do effective work in a rural community, even the work of the training-school is only half done. The extension system, or the “follow up” system, as we may describe it, is almost as important as the training itself. It has always been one of the weaknesses of our teacher-training system that when once the teacher leaves the training-school it loses all hold on him. The teacher, in too many cases, gives a sigh of relief that the ordeal is over; consigns his notebooks, crammed to overflowing, to the fire; and unless some special incentive is provided, proceeds to teach along the line of least resistance, following the methods, in many cases, by which he was taught in his own school days. What can the training-school do to make sure that the teacher will carry into practice the principles of method which he has learned at the Normal School?

It is quite evident, in the first place, that there should be the closest possible co-operation between the training-school and the county inspector who is to supervise and direct the work of the new teacher. But from a variety of circumstances the county inspector is becoming more and more an administrative official, whose chief

duty is to take stock of the resources of his inspectorate, to confer and advise with trustees as to equipment, engagement of teachers, etc.; to adjust difficulties in his inspectorate, and to make reports to the Government. It cannot be expected that the Inspector will be in a position to do wide reading or to keep pace with changes in method; and besides, the length of time which he can spend in each school is too limited to be of much real assistance to the teacher. It seems to me that a possible solution of the difficulty lies in the organization of extension work in connection with the training-schools. Let us suppose, for the sake of illustration, that each Normal School is the educational centre of a well-defined district, from which its teachers-in-training are drawn, and for which it does extension work. To each Normal School an additional master must be added, and an extension secretary for office work. It should then be possible to provide for such an adjustment of duties as to permit the masters to be free, in turn, to visit schools, to supervise, to consult with the teachers regarding their methods and their practical difficulties. This scheme would obviate another source of weakness in our present system. Under existing conditions the Normal School master is himself in reality a part of a city system. It is impossible for him to keep in touch with rural conditions and rural problems, and methods of teaching best suited to rural schools. But if each master were forced to spend at least six weeks or two months of each year in country schools, not as a visitor, but as an official supervisor, it would go a long way to remedy this weakness. An extension system involves also a central office, with model equipment, library, plans of buildings, etc., and with machinery for sending out from time to time to the rural schools suggestions, lesson outlines, and other material suited to their methods. This central office is also a bureau of information, where trustees and teachers alike may present their difficulties. This system is at present in operation in connection with certain training-schools in the United States, and is apparently giving excellent results. In some districts a further step has been taken and a model rural school has been established in each county, which forms a sort of extension centre for the county, and at the same time provides a standard for other schools to live up to. We have in this Province, it will be argued, a form of extension in our Teachers' Institute lectures and in our series of Teachers' Manuals, which have been prepared by

the Department of Education. But these are, after all, only partial measures, and do not meet the real difficulty.

SUMMARY.

In a paper such as this it is possible to deal with only the main features of the rural school problem, and perhaps in order that these features may stand out clearly it may be well, in conclusion, to sum up the main points which I have tried to get before you, as follows:

In the solution of the rural problem, as we have stated, the rural school must play an important part. The old-time rural school made little or no attempt to adapt itself to rural conditions, and the measures which are being taken at the present time are inadequate. The rural school itself must be reconstituted before present conditions can be remedied. The remedy must be sought for along three lines:

(a) Consolidation, with a graded system, adequate equipment, a school farm, a teacher's residence, and a principal who is a graduate in agriculture. In order to facilitate consolidation, a system of township or county Boards should be established.

(b) Special training for rural school teachers. This can best be secured by the establishment of rural Normal Schools, and by giving greater prominence in the course of study to agriculture, rural economics and rural sociology.

(c) An extension system, by which the Normal School would be brought into closer touch with the problem and methods of the rural schools, to the mutual advantage of both Normal School instructors and rural school teachers.

It is always easier to suggest reforms than to carry them into practice, but the speaker believes that these suggestions are not wholly impracticable, and that, if carried into effect, they would in some measure at least help to solve existing rural problems.

RURAL SCHOOL NEEDS.

J. A. TAYLOR, B.A., ST. THOMAS.

There never was a time when it could be more truly said that the only asset any nation had was its children; and there never was a time when it was the paramount duty of the State to preserve its greatest and only asset as now. Humanity is appalled at the incalculable losses in the trenches. Even to-day such is the premium placed on childhood that there is an effort in some directions to legitimize polygamy. The casualty lists, as published, mention the loss of over twelve thousand dead and fifty thousand wounded. It would be a reasonable inference to assume that at least one-half of these, had they lived, would have established homes and would have been the heads of families. If, then, this be true, how fundamentally necessary it is to safeguard the health of the children of to-day, who are to be the citizens of to-morrow? It was Kitchener who said that the last hundred thousand men would win the war. To-day we are bending the energies of the State to get recruits, and we have already refused as medically unfit over one hundred thousand men who had volunteered for the trenches. Had these men been given medical and dental attention in the schoolroom ten or fifteen years ago, a very large number would be to-day in uniform. How much cheaper, too, it would have been to have removed the physical defects then and had them capable of defending the State now, in this, the tragic hour, or the Empire's supreme crisis.

"In times of war prepare for peace," is a wise saying. In the tremendous economic, commercial and industrial struggle that is to follow in the wake of this war, our children, not we, will be the competitors. How incumbent on us who are charged with their education to see that every physical defect and disability is removed, so that when this colossal struggle comes they will not be the hewers of wood and the drawers of water for others. It is possible, too, making allowance for the human equation, the accidents and exigencies of war, that there might be such a thing as a drawn peace. In such a case there would be a reversion to primitive times,

when woman looked after the industrial and man the defensive part of the State. This emphasizes once more the absolute claim of the children of to-day for the removal by the State of any physical disability that might hinder their physical and mental development. The safety of the State is the highest law, and is the supreme duty of every man. The degree of safety and the efficiency of its defence bear a direct proportion to the physical and mental conditions of its citizens.

This raises the question whether dental and medical inspection in the schools is necessary. Assuming that there are two classes of schools, the rural and urban, I quote you statistics of two inspections. In North Middlesex, which is typical of most rural inspectorates as regards local conditions, etc., we find that out of 821 pupils examined, 161 had enlarged tonsils, 82 impaired nasal breathing and adenoids, 94 had defective vision, 295 were afflicted with caries, and 73 had anæmia; that is 705, or 90 per cent., were incapacitated by reason of physical remedial defects from assimilating and appropriating the education which, at great expense, was placed before them. Again, in Toronto, which is typical of most centres, we find that out of 894 pupils examined, 243 were mouth-breathers, 384 had decayed teeth, 249 were troubled with enlarged glands, 269 had pus exuding into the mouth, 288 had constant toothache, and 851 required dental treatment. From the above we see how terribly handicapped such children are in securing even an average education. Impaired vision and hearing means impaired ability to get knowledge. It is found, too, that the great majority of children who suffer from physical disability are from one to five years behind other children of their age in their studies. Thus the average of human intelligence and the average efficiency of the State are lowered. These children swell the ranks of the backward pupils, congest the classes, delay progress, augment the ranks of the vicious, the criminal and the immoral. From careful analysis it is estimated that at least 95 per cent. of all children are afflicted with oral sepsis, which is the cause in most cases, doctors tell us, of indigestion, dyspepsia, gastritis, infected parotid glands, tuberculosis of the lymph glands, anæmia and nephritis. A healthy mouth, with good teeth, means proper mastication; good mastication ensures satisfactory salivation; copious salivation produces improved

assimilation and nutrition. Last week a speaker said at Hamilton that out of four thousand applicants for positions in the railway shops, only 164 had the necessary physical physique to qualify—3,836 were consigned to the human scrap heap.

Then, too there is an ever-increasing number of mental degenerates, whose presence in school is prejudicial to the mental and moral interests of the other pupils. To these mental degenerates and physical weaklings—the product of bad heredity—will be added many emigrants from pauperized Europe after the war is over.

WOMEN ON RURAL SCHOOL BOARDS.

This is a consummation devoutly to be wished. Women have amply demonstrated their capacity for leadership and their ability to discharge any duty assumed by or imposed upon them. Their election to rural school boards in many States of the United States, produced a revival of interest and increased efficiency in the administration of the Public Schools. It is unthinkable that many of the unsanitary conditions of the classrooms and outbuildings, the filthy and unwashed floors, blackened ceilings and blindless windows, rusty stoves and rustier stovepipes would be allowed to continue were women elected school trustees. The character of the rural attendance has greatly changed during the last 10 or 12 years. Rarely is there found now a pupil in the Public School 14 years old. The average age is about 9 or 10 years. Who takes so keen an interest in the welfare of such small children, or who so competent to judge of their needs, as women? Moreover, women, more than any other class of citizens, are interested in advancing and maintaining a high standard of civilization, for civilization has lifted them from a condition of degradation that would be intolerable to women of to-day. The introduction of Manual Training and Household Science, the establishment of Dental and Medical Inspection, the improvement in the sanitary conditions and the beautification of the school grounds would be greatly promoted were women given a place on rural School Boards.

FREE TEXT-BOOKS.

Notwithstanding the fact that the Regulations permit School Boards to provide text-books free for the public, few rural Boards

have availed themselves of this privilege. This is in marked contrast to City Boards which, in nearly every instance, provide free books for their pupils. Next to irregularity of attendance, there is nothing that hampers the efficiency or interrupts the progress of the school so much as do pupils coming to school without being supplied with proper text-books. I have sometimes visited schools three months after their opening in September, only to find some pupils without the proper books. The loss to the pupils and to the class in such cases is heavy. Moreover, such pupils manifest a disinclination to attend school, and frequently play truant. People remote from the larger centres experience difficulty in getting the books, as the smaller book-stores do not keep them. As the pupils in the average school now are few in number, and the cost of books is reduced to a minimum, the outlay to the Board would be negligible. The reasons which justify free education are the identical reasons which justify free text-books.

CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS.

These are the schools of the future. Every new school is a nail in the coffin of consolidated schools and postpones indefinitely their general adoption. Rural mail delivery, the advantages of graded schools, a more efficient class of teachers, higher value of land, the benefits of a High School course, improved roads, better and larger equipment, are all directly associated with these schools. The writer inclines to the opinion that many rural schools, in their lonely isolation, struggling along with a small attendance and without the enthusiasm and competition that come from numbers, having teachers without experience and with inferior qualifications, could merge themselves into strong consolidated schools, manned with teachers possessing the highest qualifications, offering all the benefits of graded classes, owning larger and better libraries and equipped with every modern convenience, including a system of septic tanks, lavatories and an assembly hall. These schools would be the social centres of the community. Here, too, the pupils could remain until they had received a Normal Entrance Certificate, without their parents having to send them to High Schools at great cost, and no little peril because removed from the parental home. The only difficulty inseparable from these schools is the cost and efficiency of transportation. Efficiency not economy should be the aim of every section.

SCHOOL GAMES.

This is a feature of school life that is sadly neglected. There is no stronger antidote to truancy and irregular attendance than healthy school games and proper equipment. Play is a natural instinct of all healthy children, and to rob them of play is to rob them of part of their heredity. Trustees should encourage games by providing adequate school grounds and proper equipment. The grounds should consist of at least three acres. They should be adequate for all school games and local picnics. Here the youth of the section could meet in the evenings and on holidays to play their games. The Trustees should supply swings, teeters, cross-bars and the equipment for baseball, basketball, croquet and tennis. Were such done, truancy would disappear. The small outlay would be more than compensated by the increased regularity, the improved discipline, the quickened mental activities, the physical development and the more substantial progress.

SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT.

The child has a legitimate claim to an artistic environment. The aesthetic side of education cannot be ignored. Many of the children come from homes in which the softening and refining influence of good pictures finds no place. The classroom is the child's home. It should be a place where everything is beautiful, an environment where everything is uplifting, ennobling and inspiring. Between 8 and 14 is the child's most impressionable age, and before 12 his character is largely formed and more or less fixed. A bare wall will never develop the æsthetic side of a child's character. The habits, tastes and morals a child forms at school will, in all human probability, continue through life as an asset or liability. Bare walls, torn window-blinds, carved and disfigured desks, rusty stove-pipes, uneven floors, unlevelled and treeless grounds, broken fences and miserable outbuildings offering no privacy or facility of approach, will produce in the mind of the child such a state of contented familiarity that will be reflected in all his after-life, with irreparable loss to himself and permanent injury to the State. The classroom should be as artistic as the child's sitting-room at home. It should have an organ for opening and closing exercises, for literary meetings and for Physical Culture. Music deepens the sanctity of devotional exercises. On the walls should be hung land-

scape paintings, patriotic pictures and national portraits. On one side of the Royal portrait should be the Honor Roll, containing the names of those ex-students of the school who volunteered their lives that civilization might not perish and the British Empire live. Side by side with this Honor Roll, should be printed the principles for which the Empire is fighting, viz., the eternal principles of righteousness, justice, equity and truth. On the other side of the Royal portrait should be placed a Memorial Tablet containing the names of those who had fallen in order that truth, honor and human civilization might survive this cataclysm and be the heritage of posterity. The school is the nursery of patriotism. This Memorial Tablet would remind the children of to-day, who are to be the men and women of to-morrow, that love of country is the noblest attribute of the human soul; that sacrifice, courage and service are the qualities that dignify and ennoble life, and that the real value of life does not consist in life itself, but in the way that life is spent.

AN ENRICHED CURRICULUM.

It is now generally admitted that the function of the rural school is to teach more than the three traditional R's; that, in addition to these subjects which are basal to any education, it should teach something along vocational lines; that its environment is agricultural and lends opportunity for observational work; that the reason it was unable to sustain interest and progress in the past was because its work did not bear a direct relation to rural interests and rural life, and the material presented had no connection with the child's life or activities. The curriculum has recently been enriched by the addition of the optional subjects, Manual Training, Household Science and Agriculture. The Department gives large grants to Boards that maintain classes in these subjects. Of the desirability and necessity of teaching them in rural schools there can be no two opinions. Rural girls are no longer taught by their mothers how to cook, sew, knit or darn. Their mothers have neither the time nor the patience. The baker's wagon calls at almost as many homes in the country as it does in the town or city. Ready-made garments find as ready a sale with rural women as with urban. Nor should boys be denied instruction in these arts. Many a soldier in the trenches to-day would have his personal comforts increased were he able to sew or darn. Moreover, many of our boys will be

“squatters” on the hinterland of New Ontario, or on the prairies of the West, where a knowledge of cooking and sewing will be an asset. An annex 12 feet by 16 feet could be added to the school, which would serve as a room for alternate instruction in Manual Training and Household Science. Its equipment would consist of the simpler tools, such as saws, hammers, etc., and a coal oil stove. The larger girls could, under the teacher’s supervision, be given a daily practice in preparing a warm dish for each pupil; they could also submit to their teacher samples of their Saturday cooking, with full verbal or written descriptions of the process. True democracy could be demonstrated, and incidentally, good table manners taught when teacher and pupils ate their noonday meal together. The boys could be given practice in making many of the articles required on the farm, such as kennels, rabbit houses, bird cages, etc. Scientific agriculture should also be taught. The school will not have done its duty to the boys unless they leave it with a knowledge at least the equivalent of that which their fathers, at great sacrifice and no small cost, acquired in the bitter school of experience.

THE IDEAL RURAL SCHOOL.

I must not close this paper without giving an abbreviated description of an ideal rural school as given by the Education Department in Saskatchewan. “The building will be surrounded by ample playgrounds and gardens. There will be plenty of wind-breaks and other shade-trees. On one corner of the property will stand the Teacher’s residence. There will be outdoor workshops. The playgrounds will be supplied with swings, sand piles and other simple and useful apparatus for outdoor gymnastics and games, and the play will be supervised. Much less bookwork will be done than is now expected, but it will be done better. In the afternoons much of the study will be done in the open air, when the occupations of the children will be hand-work. No pupils with defective eyes and teeth will suffer through neglect. The school will be attractive and properly heated and ventilated. It will have verandahs on two sides. Immovable and unadjustable seats will be replaced by furniture suitable for the needs of fraternal societies, religious bodies, etc. Window space will be ample. The school will contain a public reading-room, which will have a public library

and copies of the daily newspapers and magazines. It will also contain varied apparatus for indoor games. There will be a public telephone, a Victrola and a magic lantern. In short, everything practicable will be done to make the school a suitable place for the citizens of the rural community to meet in the evening for self-improvement and the enjoyment of social intercourse."

SCHOOL DENTISTRY.

WALLACE SECCOMBE, D.D.S., CHIEF DENTAL OFFICER OF SCHOOLS,
TORONTO.

Educationists are more and more recognizing the fact that the actual knowledge acquired by the scholar in school is relatively less important than the acquirement by the child of good habits and a right attitude toward life, society and work. Increased attention is being given to the importance of the development of the physical, in conjunction with the other faculties of the child. Indeed, the strenuous age in which we live, and the amount of physical energy consumed in keeping pace with present-day activities, makes, for the average man, the physical link, the weakest link in the chain. Most men fail in the accomplishment of all they plan because of the limitations of their physical strength. Education has come to mean the development of all of the child's faculties—physical, mental, moral, and social—that there may be produced an individual, prepared and ready to play the part of a useful citizen, and thus contribute to the uplift, the general advancement and the development of society.

Educationists are also interested in the physical development of the child, because of the intimate and close relationship between the physical and the mental, and the appalling waste of time and money in attempting to develop the mental faculties beyond the point that the child's physical condition and strength will permit.

It seems an absurd regulation which enables a child to attend school just because of having attained a certain age, arbitrarily fixed, without regard to the physiological, psychological and general health conditions of the individual child. Burnham claims that entrance on school life is rendered too easy, and that parents would prize the opportunities and privileges of the school more if they were harder to obtain. He advocates a compulsory, thorough-going physical examination before admittance, and summarizes the advantages as follows:

1. To prevent those children from entering who are in ill-health, or not sufficiently developed physically and mentally.

2. To provide the necessary physical data to enable teachers so to order the school work, that it will not result in injury to health, or be a check to development, as frequently happens in the first year of school.

3. That proper grading and adaption of school occupations to individual capacity may begin at the outset of school life.

4. To give school health officers the necessary data for safeguarding the health of children against diseases and other conditions.

5. To give teachers proper knowledge of the new pupils, and the right attitude toward them.

6. That children may begin right, and be saved from unnecessary failure, retardation or elimination in later grades.

7. To educate parents and foster a right home attitude toward the school.

8. Thus to save money, so badly needed, to provide for absolutely essential hygienic school conditions.

Regarding the minimum physical standard that should be met before a child is admitted to a regular class, Dr. Burnham suggests:

Height 3 feet 9 inches; weight 44 pounds; chest circumference 20 inches; and further, as evidence of adequate physical development, that all children entering school should have erupted all four of the six-year permanent molar teeth. Physical standards should be the same at this age for boys and girls, although for girls a little less may be permitted regarding height and weight. The presence of all four six-year molars, however, should be required, of both sexes, and for all types.

Furthermore, in addition to the desirability of a thorough physical examination before entrance, some effort should be made to improve the dental conditions of children of the pre-school age. In Toronto schools, comparison has been made of the percentage of children with defective teeth in the several school grades, and it has been found that the teeth of scholars at the time of school entrance are in a more diseased condition than at any subsequent period. Statistics show that in the senior classes the percentage of scholars with defective teeth is 38 per cent., and in the junior classes 68 per cent. That is to say, the two senior classes are 13 points above the average, and the two junior classes 17 points

below the average. In the whole city, taking into account all grades, the number of scholars with defective teeth has been reduced, during the past four years, from 95 per cent. to 51 per cent. This splendid showing is due to the active co-operation of the home, the teachers, and the school nurses with the school dental officers. A plan is being considered in Toronto of reserving a certain period of the dental officers' time each week, when mothers may bring, to the school clinic, babies and other children of the pre-school age, and consult with the school dentist concerning oral conditions, diet, as it relates to the teeth, and general questions of dental hygiene. It is hoped that some such plan will be adopted, and will result in greater home interest and improved dental conditions among the children of pre-school age.

The vital importance of the first set of teeth cannot be over-estimated. They serve the child during the period of most important development, and, under normal conditions, function in the mouth for from six to ten years. If allowed to decay, proper mastication is impossible, because of the resulting pain or soreness. The food is consequently "bolted" and normal digestive action is interfered with. In the absence of mastication, the teeth become coated with a mucilaginous film, which predisposes the teeth to further and more rapid decay. Thus we have a vicious circle operating (decay, pain, lack of mastication, increased decay), one condition predisposing and aggravating the other,—"cause" producing "effect" and "effect" producing "cause."

Over ninety per cent. of school children in the Province of Ontario are afflicted with dental disease. The extent to which humanity, in general, suffers from defective teeth can be appreciated, approximately, by any man who will sit down and investigate his own dental conditions, and those of his relatives, and his immediate friends. These conditions are tolerated because the damage occasioned by diseased teeth is not generally understood. The average man would be alarmed if pus were to ooze continually from his arm; but the same individual is quite content to allow pus to exude from his teeth and gums, notwithstanding the continual swallowing of the same. Nature expels the pus, to get rid of it; but when the discharge occurs in the oral cavity, and the pus is swallowed, nature is circumvented, and serious conditions result. However, an even more serious form of infection is that which

lodges about the roots of teeth, and, without causing dental pain or discomfort, sets up a chronic source of infection, which reaches the general circulation. Thus a secondary infection occurs in some other part of the body, far removed from the teeth. In this way we may account for many obscure cases of rheumatism, neuritis, diseases of the heart, kidney and organs.

At the outbreak of the war, recruits were asked to meet the regular militia dental standards, but it was found that the teeth of the average citizen were in such a condition that thousands of men, otherwise physically fit, were rejected, because of the condition of their teeth. The situation became so serious that it was necessary for the Government to eliminate entirely all dental regulations, and recruits are now received without regard to their teeth, providing they are otherwise physically fit. To meet the situation, the Government found it necessary to organize the Canadian Army Dental Corps, for the purpose of placing Canadian soldiers in fit dental condition to serve their country. If we do our duty toward the boys and girls of the rising generation, and should Canada ever again be drawn into war, our boys will be found able to pass the militia dental standard. We shall not, as a nation, suffer the disgrace of having such a large percentage of recruits rejected because of the condition of their teeth, as occurred in the early days of the present war.

Dental disease is no respecter of classes. The poor suffer as do the rich. Experience shows that the children of wealthy parents are in just as great need of school dental service as are the children of the poor. All suffer alike from dental neglect and ignorance. It is impossible, without special training, for parents to discover dental disease in its early stages. The inaccessibility of the teeth, and the tendency of the child not to report early symptoms, renders periodical and systematic examination an absolute necessity for all children. Why not face the issue squarely and give adequate dental service to each child, at the expense of the state? This plan appeals to dentists as the only one which will give efficient dental service to the rising generation, and should likewise appeal to the citizens, not only because of greater efficiency, but because of the large economic saving which results. Instead of one hundred children each travelling some distance to the family dentist, and each being called upon to pay for service thus rendered, how much more

sensible and saving would be the plan of having the authorities employ a dentist, to visit the schools, make periodical examination of the teeth, give necessary treatment, and instruct the scholars in oral cleanliness? Through the co-operation of the home and the daily follow-up of the school teacher, a wonderful impetus would thus be given to oral cleanliness, with the resultant increase in the health, comfort, appearance and self-respect, of the boys and girls of the Province.

School dental clinics have been organized in most of the important urban centres of Canada, and the service is usually available only to the children of the poor. In Vancouver, no child is entitled to free dental service unless the earnings of the family are at the rate of \$3.00 per member per week, or less. It has been found, however, that this arbitrary ruling has occasioned some dissatisfaction and consequent opposition from those whose earnings are slightly above the amount named. We would urge the desirability of making it optional with all parents, whether the child shall be treated at the school dental clinic or by the family dentist. In no case should a child be refused dental treatment at the school clinic, if the parent requests the same. The average working man to-day, with an average family, cannot afford to pay for adequate dental services for his children, if forced to obtain such service through the regular channels. The sooner this fact is recognized, the better. Dental service is, from the standpoint of the state, an absolute necessity for each child; and this service should be supplied to every child whose parents wish to avail themselves of it. The average cost of completing all dental needs (including fillings and treatment) for scholars in the schools of the city of Toronto, is about two dollars per child, and it is safe to say that if this amount of service had been rendered in the ordinary way it would have cost the parents at least five times that amount.

Good teeth are essential to good health, and are claimed by Dr. Harvey Wylie to be "more important than the multiplication table or the double rule of three. We should endeavor to reach all people of this country especially through the public schools. If this can be done, and mouth hygiene can thus be placed upon a practical basis, the next generation will present a very different aspect from the present one, in so far as their mouths are concerned. When these good offices can be properly performed, it will be as unusual to find

diseased teeth among our grown population as it is, to-day, to find good teeth. The dentist, instead of expending his efforts in removing the debris of poor mouth hygiene and trying to save the wrecks which poor living has produced in the mouth, will devote himself more especially to the remedial agencies of minimizing decay and magnifying conditions that tend to good. The teaching of mouth hygiene should, therefore, be made universal in our public schools, and through the press and the magazines, so that all of our people may be awakened to the necessity of care and caution, and that mouth hygiene may become a universal knowledge and practice."

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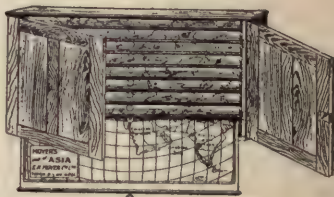
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